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CATLIN'S INDIAN GALLERY.

THERE are some, not unenlightened individuals, who still hesitate to admit the demonstrated fact, of races of creatures having flourished and become extinct before the appearance of man; and who, while disposed to believe in the pre-existence of the earth itself, feel a violence done to their sense of fitness or congruity in the idea that LIFE existed and perished in ages anterior to Adam. A little relief may be obtained from the strength of this prejudice, by directing the attention to the present state of things. Some races of creatures coeval with man have disappeared, and others are fast verging to extinction. The same causes which have rooted out the bear and the wolf from Britain must be expected, in due course of time, to narrow the field of existence for all the larger wild animals; and we may reasonably conclude, that many creatures familiar to us will be known only to future generations by name and description.

But we must confess that we share in the feeling of painful incongruity, when we turn our attention to the fact of the extinction of races of men. Believing that, notwithstanding the difficulties which attend the consideration, the whole human family form but one genus, and but one species; believing that the Creator has written perpetuity and increase upon the nature of man, so long as the present world is to endure; we turn away, with something like the bitterness of disappointment, from the idea that certain races of men—our “kinsmen according to the flesh”—are doomed to be blotted out of humanity's book of life. In various parts of the old world and the new—in Mexico, in Ireland, and in the United States—indications, palpable, plain, and yet mysterious, are found, of the existence of men in distant ages, of whom we know far less than we do of those wonderful creatures who lived on the earth before it was adapted for the habitation of our race. We only know this much, that men far more civilised than those who came after them have flourished in and disappeared from certain parts of the world, where their memorials are still to be found: but whence they came, and whither they went, and how civilisation should disappear before barbarism, are puzzles for the ingenuity of the learned and the wise.

Far easier is it, alas! for us to explain how barbarism disappears before advances of even an imperfect civilisation. Still, there is a difficulty here; for we have to explain how the negro flourishes under oppression, and how the red man of the American wilderness melts away, like snow in April, before the footsteps of white men, many of whom have been but a little more civilised than himself. By looking a little closer we may get over the difficulty. Instances are before our eyes that it has been possible to civilise the American Indian—to break him down from his wild habits into the orderly character of a settled being. Yet even here, though we might have preserved races from extinction, the Indian must have disappeared. The wild state, so often called the natural state of man, is wholly unnatural, and contains within it all the seeds of death. The civilised state, so often termed the *artificial*, is the true state of man, because it perpetuates him. By civilisation, we mean roads, cities, steam, gaslights, arts and sciences, paintings, printing, books, luxuries, &c.: by the wild or uncivilised state, we mean the forest, the hunter, the wild beast, the prairie, the tent in the wilderness, courage, acuteness, ingenuity, and endurance. The one cannot possibly exist within arm's reach of the other. Rude and imperfect is our civilisation, when compared with what it might be:

rank weeds abound in the social state of all civilised communities, and in none more than in our own; but these arise, not from civilisation itself, but from its obstructions: and who, for one moment, would seriously prefer the uneasiness, the insecurity, the privation, and the reckless life of the noblest savage, with the comparative comfort which may be made to circulate around the poorest individual in this country?

These are the ideas which we consider naturally to arise from a visit to Mr. CATLIN's “Indian Gallery.” In visiting it, indeed, the town-bred admirer of the freedom and grandeur of “savage life” might find somewhat, at first sight, to feed his sentimental fancies. Round the room, on the walls, are portraits of Indians, remarkable specimens of the true ANIMAL MAN; arrayed in their holiday dresses, tricked out in all the variety of savage fancy, and many of them as evidently and consciously “sitting for their portraits,” as the most pedantic and affected superficialist of civilisation. With these we have many glimpses of the scenery and state of existence connected with “life in the wilds.” The far-stretching prairie; the noble river, with its “reaches,” and “bluffs,” and water-floods; the shaggy bison, whose tremendous aspect makes him fearful, even in the stillness of a picture; the more terrible grisly bear; the Indian “at home,” and the Indian “abroad;” with stirring hunting scenes, enough to rouse one's blood, and to make an unfledged adventurer long to dash away, and try one's skill and courage in an encounter with horned monsters, or even that “ugly creature” before whom the “strongest bull goes down.”

But if ever we felt satisfied with London comforts and conveniences—if ever we felt soothed with London pavements, or happily resigned to the guardianship of London police, it was after a leisurely survey of “Catlin's Indian Gallery.” One might be apt to say, that there is “a great gulf fixed” between savage and civilised existence; that the savage man and the civilised man cannot belong to the same stock of humanity. But pause a little ere you pronounce judgment: here are all the lineaments of MAN, but it is man in his natural freedom, and man (even the noblest specimens of wild men) in humiliation and degradation. Oh, give us civilisation!—the wild man, with all his courage, acuteness, energy, endurance, and strength, is but a mere brute beast; and city-bred man, even with all his city vices, city weaknesses, and city helplessness, rises immeasurably above him, whom some twaddling and poetic fools have pronounced to be the only true man, the lordly lord of the wilderness!

But some of our readers may think that we ought first to tell them something about this “Indian Gallery.” Well, then, it is an exceedingly interesting exhibition, recently opened in London, of which we do not know that we can give a better general description than by quoting the characteristic preface to the “Catalogue:—”

“I wish to inform the visitors to my Gallery, that having some years since become fully convinced of the rapid decline and certain extinction of the numerous tribes of the North American Indians, and seeing also the vast importance and value which a full *picture* history of these interesting but dying people might be to future ages, I set out alone, unaided and unadvised, resolved (if my life should be spared), by the aid of my brush and my pen, to rescue from oblivion so much of their primitive looks and customs as the industry and ardent enthusiasm of one lifetime could accomplish, and set them up in a Gallery, unique and imperishable, for the use and benefit of future ages.

“I have already devoted more than seven years of my life ex-

clusively to the accomplishment of my design, and that with more than expected success.

"I have visited with great difficulty, and some hazard to life, forty-eight tribes, residing within the United States and British and Mexican territories; containing about 300,000 souls. I have seen them in their own villages, have carried my canvas and colours the whole way, and painted my portraits, &c. from the life, as they now stand and are seen in the Gallery.

"The collection contains (besides an immense number of costumes and other manufactures) 310 portraits of distinguished men and women of the different tribes, and 200 other paintings, descriptive of Indian countries, their villages, games, and customs; containing in all above 3000 figures.

"As this immense collection has been gathered, and every painting has been made from nature, *by my own hand*—and that, too, when I have been paddling my canoe, or leading my pack-horse, over and through trackless wilds, at the hazard of my life; the world will surely be kind and indulgent enough to receive and estimate them, as they have been intended, as true and fac-simile traces of individual and historical facts, and forgive me for their present unfinished and unstudied condition, as works of art.

"The entire collection is now arranged in the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, covering the walls of a room 106 feet in length.

"GEO. CATLIN."

The collection is, indeed, an exceedingly interesting one, and of which Mr. Catlin has no small reason to be proud. Here stands, at full length, Red Jacket, the famous chief of the Senecas, "very great in council and in war," who died in 1831; there the no less redoubtable Black Hawk, with his sons, the Whirling Thunder and the Roaring Thunder, accompanied by distinguished warriors, who signalled themselves in the "Black Hawk war," carried on with the United States in 1832-3; John Ross, the chief of the semi-civilised Cherokees, "a civilised and well-educated man," whose coat, and neckcloth, and *humanised* aspect, appear to remove him quite out of the sphere of his brethren, skin-clad, painted, and feathered, with their much-prized necklaces of grisly bears' claws. Some of the female portraits are very striking; and, altogether, the names, looks, attitudes, &c. of these "*wild*" men and women are full of remarkable peculiarities.

One of the most painful ideas excited by gazing on these portraits and story-telling pictures, thus brought together, is the uncertainty of savage existence, and the ease with which it is extinguished. Here, now, is an instance. Look on these three men, and read what Mr. Catlin tells us was the cause of their deaths. "These three distinguished men were all killed in a private quarrel, while I was in the country, occasioned by my painting only *one half* of the face of the first; ridicule followed, and resort to fire-arms, in which that side of the face which I had left out was blown off in a few moments after I had finished the portrait; and sudden and violent revenge for the offence soon laid the other two in the dust, and imminently endangered my own life." Or here is another. Look at this man—on one side in all the savage dignity of an Indian warrior's garb, on the other in a smart colonel's uniform, and sporting an umbrella! What was his fate? "He was taken to Washington, in 1832, by Major Sanford, the Indian agent; after he went home he was condemned as a liar, and killed, in consequence of the *incredible* stories which he told of the whites!" Or this melancholy-looking young pair. "This boy and girl, who had been for several years prisoners among the Osages, were purchased by the Indian commissioner; the girl was sent home to her nation by the dragoons, and the boy was killed by a ram the day before we started. They were brother and sister." Or this shocking scene, which Mr. Catlin has termed the "*Conqueror conquered*." It is the pictorial memorial of a story, such as has been too common in the history of the Indians. One tall fellow steals upon two unsuspecting men, within stone-throw of their village, and *scalps* them. A third man saw the transaction, and rushes out, armed only with a knife; but the tall conqueror gets him down, and is about to add a third scalp to his fresh and reeking trophies. But the prostrate man, lying on his back, seizes the tuft of the conqueror, as he stoops over him, and

the picture represents the scene at the moment when the conqueror is conquered!

The brief details which Mr. Catlin gives respecting the different tribes are also very painful. Take, for instance, this note on the Mandans:

"A small tribe of 2000 souls, living in two permanent villages on the Missouri, 1800 miles above its junction with the Mississippi. Earth-covered lodges, villages fortified by strong pickets eighteen feet high, and a ditch. This friendly and interesting tribe all perished by the smallpox and suicide, in 1837 (three years after I lived amongst them), excepting about forty, who have since been destroyed by their enemy, rendering the tribe entirely extinct, and their language lost, in the short space of a few months! The disease was carried amongst them by the traders, which destroyed, in six months, of different tribes, 25,000!" Or this, about the "Black Feet, a very warlike and hostile tribe of 50,000, including the Peagans, Cotonnes, and Gros-yentres des Prairies, occupying the head-waters of the Missouri, extending a great way into the British territory on the north, and into the Rocky Mountains in the west. Rather low in stature, broad-chested, square-shouldered, richly clad, and well armed, living in skin-lodges; 12,000 of them destroyed by smallpox within the year 1838!" Or this, again, about the tribe of the "Sem-i-nó-lee (Runaways); 3000, occupying the peninsula of Florida, semi-civilised, partly agricultural. The government have succeeded in removing about one half of them to the Arkansas during the last four years, at the expense of 32,000,000 dollars, the lives of twenty-eight or thirty officers, and 600 soldiers."

Mr. Catlin's Gallery is, in truth, a record of existences, manners, and customs, which are disappearing almost as rapidly as if a flood had submerged the American continent, and swept away the beings of a former era. It exhibits, also, how utterly helpless the noblest forms of barbarism are, whenever they come in contact even with an imperfect and vicious civilisation; the wild man must either change his nature, or perish! And the existence of the brutes who share the vast wilds with their *fellow* man, is just as much exposed to waste and destruction. Look at this pair of pictures—"White wolves attacking a buffalo [bison] bull," and "ditto, ditto, a parley!" In one, the tremendous beast is tossing, goring, and trampling on his pack of assailants, in all the wild fury of his strength; in the other, they are grouped around him, howling for assistance, while he stands, exhausted, yet resting, and warily watching the slightest symptoms of a fresh onset. Wasteful, too, is savage man of the life, both of his fellow-men and his companion brutes. Here is a bison chase, where Mr. Catlin says he saw 300 of these noble animals killed in a few minutes, with arrows and lances only! In other pictures we have striking instances of the thoughtlessness of the Indian, in slaughtering the bison with reckless profusion, now killing them in great numbers for their skins, or leaving them to strew their blood and their bodies over the prairies.

We cannot quit Mr. Catlin's Gallery without noticing four pictures in gilt frames, illustrative of what he terms "*Mandan Religious Ceremonies*." These are at once so singular and so horrific, that while we can scarcely avoid describing them, no description can be available without the pictorial illustrations. They represent an annual ceremony, affirmed by Mr. Catlin to contain an actual "*Mystery*," representing the "*Flood*," and during which all the young men who were anxious to get their "*savage diplomas*," and rank amongst the warriors of their tribe, submitted to a process of "*voluntary torture*," the sight of which makes one's flesh to creep. They are seen suspended by splints passed through their flesh, and continue hung up till they faint; the little finger of the left hand is chopped off; and they are dragged through the dirt, until weights attached to their bodies are disengaged by tearing the flesh out! These torturing processes last through three days, during which dances are performed, &c., of one of which we shall copy Mr. Catlin's description:—

"To the strict observance of the Bull Dance they attribute the coming of buffalo to supply them with food during the season. This scene is exceedingly grotesque, and takes place several times in each day, outside of the lodge, and around the curb or 'Big Canoe,' whilst the young men still remain in the lodge, as seen in

the other picture: for this dance, however, the four sacks of water are brought out and beat upon, and the old medicine-man comes out and leans against the big canoe, with his medicine-pipe in his hand, and cries. The principal actors in this scene are eight men dancing the buffalo dance, with the skins of buffalo on them, and a bunch of green willows on their backs. There are many other figures whose offices are very curious and interesting, but which must be left for my Lectures, or notes, to describe. The black figure on the left they call O-kee-bee-de (the evil spirit), who enters the village from the prairie, alarming the women, who cry for assistance, and are relieved by the old medicine-man, and the evil spirit is at length disarmed of his lance, which is broken by the women, and he is driven by them in disgrace out of the village. The whole nation are present on this occasion, as spectators and actors in these strange scenes."

This "Big Canoe," which makes such a conspicuous figure in the above, is thus described, in the note in the Catalogue to the picture of the Mandan Village.

"In the middle of the village is an open area of 150 feet in diameter, in which their public games and festivals are held. In the centre of that is their 'big canoe,' a curb made of planks, which is an object of religious veneration. Over the Medicine (or mystery) Lodge are seen hanging, on the tops of poles, several sacrifices to the Great Spirit, of blue and black cloths, which have been bought at great prices, and there left to hang and decay."

A stout believer in the Jewish origin of the North American Indians would at once trace a connexion between this "big canoe" and the ark of the Israelites, which occupied the centre of their camp when in the wilderness. But, alas, the Mandans, as we have already mentioned, have been all swept away!

THE USEFUL FAMILY.

ON removing, some time ago, to a new quarter of the town, where I was an entire stranger, one of my first businesses was to look out for a respectable grocer, with whom I might deal for family necessaries. With this object in view, I, one day, shortly after our settlement in our new domicile, sallied out on an exploratory expedition, through our own and some of the adjoining streets, in order, in the first place, to see what like the general run of shops in our neighbourhood were. The result of this tour was to narrow the matter of selection to three shops of respectable appearance; which of these, however, I should eventually patronise, I did not at the moment determine, as I always like to do things deliberately. This deliberation, then, rendered another tour of observation necessary.

On this second excursion, seeing nothing, even after a very careful survey, in the externals of either of the three shops to decide my final choice, I resolved, in the conceit of a pretty ready appreciation of character, on being guided by the result of a glance at the general personal appearances of the respective shopkeepers. On pretence, then, of examining a certain box of Turkey figs that lay in the window of one of the shops in question, I took a furtive peep of the gentleman behind the counter. I didn't like his looks at all; he was a thin, starved, hungry-looking fellow, with a long, sharp, red nose, and, I thought, altogether, a sort of person likely to do a little business in the short-weight way with those who dealt with him. I thought, too, from the glance I took of his head, that there was a deficiency in his bump of conscientiousness. Him, therefore, I struck off the list, and proceeded to the next.

This man was, in all personal respects, the very opposite of the other; he was a fat, gruff, savage-looking monster, from whom I did not think much civility was to be expected; nor did I like the act in which I found him, when I peeped through the window—this was throwing a loaded salt basket at the head of his apprentice. Probably it was deserved, but I did not like the choler it exhibited—so I passed on to the third. Here was a jolly, pleasant, matronly-looking woman for shopkeeper. I was taken with her appearance, so in I popped, and we soon came to an understanding. I opened negotiations by the purchase of a couple of pounds

of tea, a proportionable quantity of sugar, and several other little odds and ends, for which I had a commission from my wife. We found the articles excellent, our worthy, jolly *groceress* civil and obliging; and all, therefore, so far as this went, was right.

The grocer, however, although a most convenient sort of personage, cannot supply all the wants of a family; there is another, still more essential, inasmuch as he is necessary not only to our comfort, but almost to our existence—the baker. We still wanted a baker; having hitherto bought our bread in a straggling sort of way. What we wanted, then, was a regular baker; and not knowing well where to look for one, we applied to our obliging *groceress*. The worthy woman seemed delighted with the inquiry—we wondered why; she thus solved the mystery. "Why, sir," she said, "my son's a baker: his shop is just a little further on. He will be very happy to supply you, and I undertake to warrant his giving you every satisfaction."

Well pleased to find that our little expenditure would—at least so far as the addition of bread went—be still kept in the family, we proceeded forthwith to the shop of the baker. It was a very respectable-looking one, and the baker himself a civil, obliging fellow; so we settled matters with him on the instant.

It was, I think, somewhere about three weeks after this, that our servant-girl brought, along with a quantity of butter for which she had been sent to Mrs. Aikenside's—the name, by the way, of our worthy *groceress*—a very handsome card, which ran thus:

"Miss Jane Aikenside begs to intimate to her friends and the public, that she has begun business in the millinery and dress-making line, and that every care and attention will be bestowed in the execution of all orders with which she may be favoured." At the bottom of the card—"Availing herself of this opportunity, Miss Mary Aikenside takes the liberty of announcing, that she continues to instruct young ladies in music, on the terms formerly advertised, namely, two guineas per quarter, of three lessons per week."

"Aikenside!" said I, on perusing the card; "who are they, these Misses Aikenside?"

"Relations of our grocer's, I dare say," said my wife. We inquired, and found they were her daughters.

"Very fortunate," said my wife; "I was just at a loss where I should go with the girls' new frocks and my own gown. We can't do better than give them to Mrs. Aikenside's daughters."

I thought so too, and, moreover, said so; but, being a matter not within my province, I interfered no further in it. My wife, however, lost no time in calling on Miss Aikenside, who carried on her business in her mother's house, which was immediately over the shop. The interview was satisfactory to both parties. My wife was much pleased with both the appearance and manners of Miss Aikenside, and with the specimens of work which she submitted. The children's frocks and the gown were, therefore, immediately put into her hands. The work was well done; my wife said she had not seen more accurate fits for a long time; so, from this date, Miss Aikenside got all our millinery to do.

The intercourse which this brought on between the female members of the two families afforded my wife and daughters an opportunity of hearing Miss Mary Aikenside's performances on the piano—for she, too, resided with her mother,—with which they were all delighted; she was, they said, an exquisite performer; my wife adding, that as it was now full time that our two eldest girls had begun music (of which, indeed, we had been thinking for some time previously), we might just send them at once to Miss Aikenside. I offered no objection, but, on the contrary, was very glad that we could yet further patronise the very respectable family whose services we had already found so useful; so to Miss Mary Aikenside our two daughters were immediately sent, to learn music; and very rapid progress they subsequently made under her tuition.

It was only now—that is, after my two girls had begun music with Miss Aikenside—that I began to perceive the oddity of the circumstance of having so many of our wants supplied by one

family; for I may as well add, the baker, who was unmarried, also lived with his mother. But this was an oddity to be rendered yet more remarkable.

"Mrs. Aikenside, my good lady," said I, on dropping one day into the shop, "you were good enough, besides furnishing us with what you dealt in yourself, to tell us where we could be supplied with what you did not deal in. You told us where to find a baker; now, can you tell us where we shall find a shoemaker—a respectable shoemaker?"

Mrs. Aikenside laughed. "My husband, sir," she said, "is a shoemaker, and will be much obliged to you for any employment you may be pleased to put in his way."

I now laughed too; for the idea was becoming, I thought, exceedingly amusing. "A shoemaker, is he?" said I; "that's odd, but fortunate too. Where is his shop? where does he work?"

"Oh, he has no shop, sir; shop-rents are so high. He works up-stairs in the house; he has a small room set apart for the purpose. Will you walk up and see him, sir, if you please?" she added, pointing to an inside stair, which conducted from the shop to the story above.

I did so; and found Mr. Aikenside, a very respectable-looking man, hard at work in the midst of two or three journeymen and apprentices. He had seen me several times in the shop before, so he knew me.

"Mr. Aikenside," said I, "I want a little work done in your way."

"Most happy to serve you, sir," said Mr. Aikenside.

"It is but a small matter, though—hardly worth your attention, I doubt; but better things will probably follow."

"Don't matter what it is, sir—don't matter how trifling. Glad and ready to do anything in my way, however small; always thankful for employment."

"Then, sir, we shall deal," said I. "There's a parcel of my youngsters' shoes at home that stand in need of repairing."

"Send them over, sir, and they shall be done to your satisfaction; or I'll send one of these lads for them directly."

Here was an active, prompt, thorough-going tradesman then—one who seemed to know what he was about, and who, I had no doubt, would do his work well; just, in short, such a man as I wanted.

I was altogether much pleased with the man, and could not help laughingly remarking to him the oddity of my finding so many of the wants of life supplied by one family. "There," said I, "is the grocer, the baker, the milliner, the teacher of music, and the shoemaker, all in one family—all living together."

"Ay, but you have forgot one—there's another still to add," said Mr. Aikenside, appreciating the humour of the thing. "We can furnish you with a tailor, too; and as good a hand, I will say it, though he be my own son, as any in town, be the other who he may."

"Bless my soul, a tailor too!" said I; "where is this to end? Pray, where does he hang out?"

"Why, sir, in the next room;" and he went to the door, and called out, "Jim, Jim, I say, come here a moment."

Jim came—a smart, and, although in the loose deshabille of his calling, genteel-looking lad.

"Here," continued Mr. Aikenside, addressing his son—"here is a gentleman, who doesn't say he wants anything in your way just now, but who may, probably, do so by and by."

Jim bowed politely, and not ungracefully, and saying he would be proud of any little share of my employment which I should think fit to afford him, put a handsomely embossed card into my hand, with his name and other particulars relative to his business.

The children's shoes were sent to the father; they were promptly and well done, and the consequence was, that we henceforth employed him both to make and mend for us.

The experiment of a suit for one of my boys was soon after made of the son's skill as a workman; it was satisfactory—more than

satisfactory. He, therefore, was instantly dubbed our tailor, and from this time given all our work, both old and new.

So, good reader, there we are. This single family of the Aikensides, one way and another, get at least three-fourths of our entire income; and right welcome are they to it, for they give full and fair value in return.

GOLDSMITH.

THE wretched post of usher to an academy was at one time his refuge from actual starving. Unquestionably, his description was founded on personal recollection where he says, "I was up early and late; I was browbeaten by the master, hated for my ugly face by the mistress, worried by the boys within, and never permitted to stir out to seek civility abroad." This state of slavery he underwent at Peckham Academy, and had such bitter recollection thereof as to be offended at the slightest allusion to it. An acquaintance happening to use the proverbial phrase, "Oh, that is all holiday at Peckham," Goldsmith reddened, and asked if he meant to affront him. From this miserable condition he escaped with difficulty to that of journeyman, or rather shop-porter, to a chemist in Fish-street-hill; in whose service he was recognised by Dr. Sleight, his countryman and fellow-student at Edinburgh, who, to his eternal honour, relieved Oliver Goldsmith from this state of slavish degradation. The person and features of Dr. Goldsmith were rather unfavourable: he was a short, stout man, with a round face much marked with the small-pox, and a low forehead, which is represented as projecting in a singular manner. Yet these ordinary features were marked by a strong expression of reflection and of observation.—*Sir Walter Scott.*

DERBY FOOT-BALL, ON SHROVE-TUESDAY.

"Then strip, lads, and to it, though sharp be the weather,
And if by mischance you should happen to fall,
There are worse things in life than a tumble on heather,
And life itself is but a game at foot-ball."

"And when it is over, we'll drink a blithe measure
To each laird and each lady that witness'd our fun,
And to ev'ry blithe heart that took part in our pleasure—
To the lads that have lost, and the lads that have won."

SIR WALTER SCOTT.

ONE of the most popular amusements of Derbyshire, on Shrove Tuesday, is the athletic game of foot-ball; a game which lays fast hold of the affections of the Peakrill, and is followed with enthusiasm by every man who can pronounce the Shibboleth of his country, the name of Darran.

As played in the northern, and in fact in the greater, part of Derbyshire, foot-ball resembles the pastime of the same name in Yorkshire, Lancashire, and the adjoining counties; that is, two sides are formed of the players, who adjourn to some large open field, mark out the distance of the goals of the respective parties, and producing a leather ball, filled up plump and rendered elastic by an inflated bladder, each player endeavours, by kicking it with his foot, to impel it to the goal of his own party, which is as obstinately resisted by the players of the other side, till, after a succession of kicks and bruises, of tugs, of wrestlings, and of falls, frequently lasting for many hours, one of the contending parties drives the ball through the opening, and becomes the victor of the day. This is a slight sketch of the common game of foot-ball, as it is most generally played; but in Derby (the county-town), and in Ashbourne (thirteen miles distant), this game assumes a very different character.

The inhabitants of Derby are born foot-ball players;—the game seems interwoven with their existence; they have drunk it with their mothers' milk, and it animates them through their lives. Enthusiasm is but a cold word for their attachment to it; on Shrove Tuesday it is a passion irresistible, which bears down before it every obstacle, and defies the law, the magistracy, the police. Nor is it confined alone to the lower classes—the gentry, the respectable tradesmen, have all, in some part of their lives, been foot-ball players; and they encourage it now by their countenance and their subscriptions; they remember their own feats, and they view with pleasure the exertions of their successors. Young and old, matrons and maids, are alike transported with its delights, and "All Saints'" and "St. Peter's" are the war-cries of the day.

The game is a contest betwixt two of the five parishes of Derby,

St. Peter's and All Saints'; the former joined by St. Werburgh's and St. Michael's, the latter by the remaining parish of St. Alkmund; and both reinforced by volunteers from various villages in the surrounding country. All Saints' has its goal at an extremity of the town nearly a mile from the market-place, in the dam of the Nunnery Mill; St. Peter's at another extremity at nearly the same distance, on the precise spot of ground where, before the introduction of the New Drop, formerly stood the gallows; both, some twenty years ago, completely in the country, but now considerably within the boundaries of the new-built town. The ball, an enormous sphere of leather, stuffed with shavings, is dropped—none knows from whence—in the market-place, exactly as the town-hall clock strikes two, amidst an assembly of many thousands, so closely wedged together as scarcely to admit of any locomotion. The principal players form a body in the centre of the crowd, and are distinguishable by being stripped to their shirts, and, instead of wearing hats or caps, having in general their heads bound round with handkerchiefs of various colours; but as no particular badge is worn, a stranger finds it difficult, if not impossible, to form a satisfactory idea of the conflicting parties; a Derby eye alone can point out a St. Peter's or an All Saints' man.

The ball, on being let fall, is not struck at or kicked with the foot, but is, as soon as possible, picked up by one of the players, who, if he can, passes it immediately to his associates; this, however, is opposed by his adversaries, who endeavour to take the ball away. And now commences the interest of the game; one party resolves to keep possession, the other to become master of the prize; their hands are elevated above their heads, their palms open towards the centre, ready to receive the ball in its passage; and the shouts of "St. Peter's!" "All Saints'!" the clapping of hands, the cheers, the waving of handkerchiefs and encouraging motions from the upper windows and roofs of the surrounding houses, is altogether such a display of interest and enthusiasm as is rarely witnessed, even at a horse-race; the excitement of an election, even at the closing of the poll, is apathy compared to it; the existence of the town might be depending on the issue of the contest.

It should have been premised, that on this afternoon all business is at a stand, and every shop shut up, and the lower windows of every house in those streets where there is a probability of the ball being taken are all closed; entrance-gates are fastened, gardens barricaded, and every method taken to secure property; for foot-ball is lawless, and its partisans acknowledge no barrier which cannot resist their united force! Houses become public roads when they offer a nearer way to meet the ball; and no one grumbles, no one scolds! Each feels an interest in the game, and each gives every assistance to his favourite parish.

The intent is to convey the ball, spite of all obstructions, to one of the goals; walls must be scaled, fences removed, gates broken down, rivers forded or swum across—everything must give way to this important point! It is a complete trial of strength in each party—the one to make way, the other to prevent it; every nerve is strained to the utmost, every exertion made to facilitate or retard progression. The pressure is immense, but systematic; Derby men, from long experience, well knowing how to improve human power, either in resisting or aiding the density of a concentrated crowd.

After a struggle of perhaps an hour, the ball is carried or forced from the market-place, but not before many of the antagonists are reduced to all but a state of perfect nudity, and some put *hors de combat*, by the dislocation of a limb, the breaking of a bone, or the trampling of the crowd. It is now forced on the street, till coming to St. Peter's bridge, it is thrown over the parapet into the Martin-brook*, where, in expectation of such an occurrence, a swarm of players from both the contending parties are standing breast-high in the water, in readiness to seize it. A Peter's man has got it! See! he swims with it under the arch, and carries it along the culvert, pursued by a host of opponents, chin-deep in water, towards the Derwent! Alas, he cannot reach it! The opposing party have met him at the outlet, have driven the ball into the rolling-mill yard, have closed the gates upon their adversaries, and begin to rejoice in the prospect of a speedy victory. These hopes, however, are fallacious! St. Peter's men scale the walls, force the gates off their ponderous hinges, and dripping with the half-frozen water from the culvert, renew the contest in the inclosed court. These strive to gain the river, those to take the ball back into the town. It is now on an islet, guarded by two

Peter's men, divested of every article of clothing, but so wrapped up in their devotion to the game as to be perfectly unconscious of their appearance and situation; while two others, nearly naked, lie upon and secure it, till an opportunity offers for removing it with safety. It is again in the water; another bridge is dived under, and the poor ball, with two or three scores of its followers, is now in the middle of the Derwent!

Thus is the contest kept up, till darkness puts a period to the struggle; the players become exhausted, the opposition more and more feeble; reinforcements arrive, the contenders assume new life, the game recommences, and the ball is finally taken to the goal. St. Peter's, this year, is the winning party, and the church-bells announce the conquest. He who had the honour of last delivering the ball is the champion of the night, and, mounted on the shoulders of two of his friends, with another before him carrying the ball, he is borne in procession from house to house, soliciting a something from every inmate for a "poor St. Peter's lad!"

Happy would it be for the town if this trial of skill and strength could be carried on without accidents, but life and limb are too often in jeopardy in every annual encounter; yet so infatuated are the players, that a life lost or a limb fractured is passed by almost unnoticed. On Shrove-Tuesday, 1835, one young man was taken out of the crowd to the surgeon's, with a dislocated shoulder; it was with great exertion, and on his part with the most intense suffering, replaced, and he resumed his play as if nothing had occurred. Another was nearly trampled to death; and numbers, by suddenly plunging, when violently heated, into the almost frozen river, on one of the roughest and coldest of winter-days, caught such colds as will leave their visible effects for every succeeding year of life.

Such is the Derby foot-ball play! It is much censured, and it is also as highly commended. The title by which it is held can only be *prescription*, and prescription can never legalise a riot. Be this as it may, it is still practised, without any effectual interference of the municipal authorities to put it down; in fact, every member of the borough, from his worship the mayor to the lowest burgess, is or has been a foot-ball player; and it would seem ill-natured to prohibit the present generation what in bygone years has afforded them a high gratification.

Of the origin of this singular pastime we can do nothing more than form conjectures. No one can remember its commencement; it has been the amusement of our ancestors in those times of which we have no account. It is undoubtedly the remains of one of those hardy sports which formed the solace of our early progenitors, and improved their strength, their agility and address; and this may be said in its favour, that even at the present day it is entered into without mercenary motives, and carried on without any quarrel—the sole object being the honour of beating the competitor, and carrying away the ball. Something of the kind was formerly practised in the city of Chester, by the shoemakers and drapers; but in 1540 it was abolished, and a foot-race on the Roodee, on every succeeding Shrove-Tuesday, established in its stead.

The game to which this foot-ball makes the nearest approach is that formerly played in Wales, under the name of Knappan; but knappan seems to have been a much more noble amusement—one part of the players being mounted on fleet and active horses, and having for the theatre of contention an extensive open country.

This foot-ball is not confined to Shrove-Tuesday alone; it is also played on the following day, but generally by a younger set, the aspirants for future fame; and at Ashbourne the same rule is observed, the contending parties, as at Derby, being the representatives of two particular parishes.

THE HAMMER.

THE principle of the permanence of the force of communicated motion, so far as any cause within the moving body itself is concerned—that is, of its absolute permanence—except in so far as it is counteracted by some external and opposite force, whilst it lies at the very foundation of all just views of the theory, is sufficiently shown, by many examples, to be a most important element in the practice of mechanics. What is it, in fact, but this which constitutes the giant force of impact, and makes the hammer a weapon more powerful than any other—irresistible—in moulding and submitting the various objects around him to the uses and purposes of man? There is no machine comparable to the hammer. The force of heat, indeed, insinuates itself between the pores and interstices of bodies, and operating there separately

* This brook is now covered by a new culvert, and forms a wide street.

upon their particles, breaks them up in detail; but the hammer encounters the accumulated force of their cohesion and overcomes it. The hardest rocks and the most unyielding metals submit to it. If man reigns over inanimate matter, shapes out the face of the earth to his use or to his humour, and puts the impress of his skill and his labour upon the whole face of nature, it is chiefly with the aid which this mighty force of impact gives him. It is this that clears away for him the trees of the forest—that shapes for him the materials of his dwelling—that beats out for him the instruments of tillage—that digs and hoes up the earth—that, after having cut for him his corn, threshes it, and crushes it into flour—that tames for him his cattle, shapes and binds together his wagons and carts, and makes his roads: in short, there is no use of society for which this force of impact does not labour, and there is no operation of it which does not manifest this tendency of communicated force of motion to permanence. Were there no tendency to permanence in the force of motion which his hammer acquires in its descent, its power on the substance which the artificer seeks to shape out would only be the same as though he were to lay it gently down upon it; its impact would be no greater force than the pressure of its weight. So far, however, is this from being the case, that, as it is well known to the workman, a slight blow from the lightest hammer is sufficient to abrade a surface, which the direct pressure of a ton weight would not make to yield. There is no force in nature comparable to that of impact.—*Moseley's Illustrations of Science.*

HUNGARY AND TRANSYLVANIA*.

By referring to the map of Europe, the reader will better understand the importance and value of the two volumes whose title we have given below, and be led to take an interest in their subject. It is, indeed, somewhat humiliating that we, in Britain, know so little about a portion of Europe whose past history, confused as it may be, is frequently of the most exciting nature, and whose present condition and prospects are of great importance to the politician, the merchant, and all who care about the progress and improvement of their fellow-men. "Our ignorance," says Mr. Paget, "of Hungary is bitterly complained of by the Hungarians. 'You are more interested in England about the cause of the South Sea Islands than about us Protestant constitutional Hungarians; you know more of the negroes in the interior of Africa than you do of a nation in the East of Europe.' 'This is undoubtedly true, but how can we help it?' was my answer, 'Neither your newspapers nor those of Germany dare give us any information on your politics; for if they do, they know that their Austrian circulation is lost, as they are stopped at the frontiers; and besides the difficulties of travelling in the country, it is by no means easy to procure a passport at Vienna for that purpose.' We both regretted that, between two nations who had each so much that the other required, such mutual ignorance should prevail, and we could only hope that steam-navigation would break down the barrier which had hitherto been found insurmountable."

Contrast our ignorance of Hungary with the interest felt about us in the minds of intelligent Hungarians.

"Bulwer's 'England and the English' is known everywhere, and Pückler Muskan has helped to spread an acquaintance with our manners. For politics, the *Allgemeine Zeitung* is the authority. It is wonderful how eagerly every one asks for information about our parliament; and I could not help thinking that if some of the honourable members who occasionally make such melancholy exhibitions there, could guess how far and wide their reputation is spread, they would sometimes think twice before they speak. Many seemed to think that the House of Commons must needs be the favourite resort of every one; and I have heard young men declare, that they would toil and slave a life-long for the pleasure of once seeing, and hearing the debates of that house. Not a single great name in either chamber but was familiar to our host. How did Lord Grey look? What would the Duke of Wellington do? How could Peel hold with the ultra-Tories? Was O'Connell an honest man? Did Stanley really believe all he talked about church property?"

"The name of O'Connell, throughout all Hungary, we found a

* Hungary and Transylvania; with Remarks on their Condition, Social, Political and Economical. By John Paget, Esq. With numerous illustrations from sketches by Mr. Hering. London, John Murray. 1839.

watchword among the liberal Catholics, and many were the questions we were asked about his eloquence, talent, and appearance. He seems to be considered a living testimony that Catholicism and even ultra-liberalism are by no means inconsistent."

Nay, more, the very Jews in Hungary—one, at all events—know something about us.

"While we were waiting," says Mr. Paget, "for fresh horses before the little 'Juden knipe,'—for by this contemptuous epithet, answering to 'Jew's pot-house,' Stephan always designated an inn kept by a Jew,—at the station next Tzerhova, one of the tribe of Israel came up and asked us if we would like to see some curious rocks, only a quarter of an hour from the village. As we followed him to the spot, he asked those questions as to where we came from, what we were doing, and whither we were going, so common in most countries except our own, where they are avoided, as though every one was doing something of which he was ashamed, and which he desired to conceal. On hearing that we were English, he asked very earnestly if one Walter Scott was yet living, and expressed the greatest regret when he learnt his death. Surprised at such a sentiment from such a man, and suspecting some mistake, I inquired what he knew of Scott; when he pulled from his pocket a well-thumbed German translation of *Ivanhoe*,—the very romance of persecuted Judaism,—and assured me he had read that and many others of his works with great pleasure. I do not know that I ever felt more strongly the universal power of genius than when I found the bard of Scotland worshipped by a poor Jew in the mountains of Hungary."

Hungary, then, is a portion of that extensive country which, in past history, has been the "border" or "debateable land" of Europe; the nursery of swarms of hardy barbarians who tried the arms and skill of the most active of Roman emperors, and more than once made imperial Rome tremble; and which is memorable in the history of the great struggle between Christianity and Mohammedanism, during that period when the Turkish power, in its strength, seemed destined to subvert Europe. This extent of country may be considered as lying between Turkey, Austria proper, Russia and Poland, and as stretching from the Adriatic to the Black Sea. It belongs to Turkey, Russia, and Austria; the latter empire containing Hungary, and Transylvania, the subjects of the volumes before us. The Danube, on its way to the Black Sea, flows through the heart of Hungary, thus giving a rich and fertile country the benefits which may be derived from the use of a noble river, and on which steam is now in active operation.

Politically considered, Hungary stands somewhat in the same relation to the arbitrary power of Austria, that Ireland did to Britain before the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act. It was finally delivered from the Turkish yoke about the beginning of the eighteenth century; but though united to Austria, it still considers itself as an independent kingdom, having a constitution which the Hungarians regard with jealous attachment, and laws and privileges, the operation of which has been, and still continue, a source of great trouble and offence to the Austrian court. "The crown of St. Stephen" is preserved with religious care. "It is almost impossible for a foreigner to conceive with how deep a veneration the Hungarians regard this crown as an emblem of national sovereignty, and its removal was considered, as indeed it was intended, to be a mark of the reduction of Hungary to the state of an Austrian province. Pope Sylvester II. sent the crown to Stephen, first King of Hungary, in the year 1000, on the establishment of Christianity in the country, whence it has received the title of 'Holy and Apostolic Crown.' It has at various times been seized by usurpers to the throne, been hidden for years, removed to foreign countries, but always eventually brought back, and more proudly regarded than ever. It is now placed in the castle of Buda; two of the highest nobles of the land are appointed its guardians; and it is watched and guarded with even more care than the holiest of relics. The reign of Joseph II. is, by Hungarians, regarded as a kind of interregnum, because he never placed this crown on his head."

"From the era of the conquest of the country the Hungarian nobles claim to date the origin of their rights and privileges; but the legal act by which they were secured, and by the terms of which the present monarch at his coronation swore to maintain them, was executed in 1222."

"The English reader can scarcely fail to be struck by the

singular coincidence of two countries, so far apart as England and Hungary, having obtained, within seven years of each other,—the English in 1215, the Hungarians in 1222,—through the weakness of their monarchs, the great charters of their liberties. Nor, if he looks a little further, will he be less surprised to find that at that time the Hungarians were equal to, if not before us, in enlightened notions of personal freedom, of civil right, and of political privilege. It would be out of our province to investigate the causes which have produced the different results which we observe at the present moment; but I suspect a fair estimate of them would give us little cause for the indulgence of national vanity. The accident of geographical position has often worked mighty results in our favour and against the Hungarians."

Having thus got a glimpse of Hungary, we may now accompany Mr. Paget from Vienna.

"It was about the middle of June 1835, that we shook the dust of Vienna from our feet, and bent our steps towards the confines of Hungary. Full of the hope of adventure, with which the idea of entering a country familiar only in history or romance fills even older heads than ours, we had been for some days impatient at the dull delays of the Austrian police, and were commensurately rejoiced at their termination, and the actual commencement of our journey.

"The reader would certainly laugh, as I have often done since, did I tell him one half the foolish tales the good Viennese told us of the country we were about to visit. No roads! no inns! no police! we must sleep on the ground, eat where we could, and be ready to defend our purses and our lives at every moment! In full credence of these reports, we provided ourselves most plentifully with arms, which were carefully loaded, and placed ready for immediate use; for as we heard that nothing but fighting would carry us through, we determined to put the best face we could on the matter. It may, however, ease the reader's mind to know that no occasion to shoot anything more formidable than a partridge or a hare ever presented itself; and that we finished our journey with the full conviction that travelling in Hungary was just as safe as travelling in England.

"Why or wherefore, I know not, but nothing can exceed the horror with which a true Austrian regards both Hungary and its inhabitants. I have sometimes suspected that the bugbear with which a Vienna mother frightens her squaller to sleep, must be an Hungarian bugbear; for in no other way can I account for the inbred and absurd fear which they entertain for such near neighbours. It is true, the Hungarians do sometimes talk about liberty, constitutional rights, and other such terrible things, to which no well-disposed ears should ever be open, and to which the ears of the Viennese are religiously closed. Worthy people! How satisfied must the old emperor, *der gute Franz*, have been with you! When a certain professor once remonstrated with him on the censorship of the press, and represented it as the certain means of checking the genius of his people, he was answered, 'I don't want learned subjects.—I want good subjects.' As regards the first part of his wish no man had more reason to be contented than the late Emperor of Austria; for a more unintellectual, eating and drinking, dancing and music-loving people do not exist, than the good people of Vienna. As long as they can eat *gebackene Hendl* at the Sperl, or dance in the Augarten, and listen to the immortal Strauss, as he stamps and fiddles before the best waltz-band in Europe, so long will they willingly close their ears to all such wicked discourses; and, despite the speculations of philosophers or the harangues of patriots, nothing will ever induce them to desire a change.

"The reader must not imagine that he is about to visit one people on entering Hungary, but rather a collection of many races, united by geographical position, and other circumstances, into one nation, but which still preserve all their original peculiarities of language, dress, religion, and manners. The Magyars*, or Hungarians proper, the dominant race, and to whom the land may be said to belong, do not amount to more than three millions and a half out of the ten millions at which the whole population is estimated. The Slavacks may be reckoned at two millions; other members of the Slavish race, but differing in religion and dialect, at two and a half; the rest of the population, being made up of Wallacks, Jews, Germans, Gipsies, &c. There is scarcely less difference of religion than of origin in this motley population. The Catholics are predominant, as well in number as in power; but the two sects of

Protestants, the Lutherans and Calvinists, and the members of the Greek church, both united and non-united, are numerous, and enjoy nearly the same rights as the Catholics. The Jews are tolerated on the payment of a tax, but cannot exercise any political functions."

The Danube enters Hungary at Presburg; and in this city the sittings of the Diet—the Hungarian Parliament—are held, on account of its proximity to Vienna. But the Hungarians are anxious for its sittings being held in Pest, or rather Buda-Pest; for these two cities, lying opposite each other, on both sides of the Danube, must be considered as one city, the capital of Hungary. Let us therefore descend the river, and endeavour to "discover" it, like that "learned countryman of ours," of whom Mr. Paget so pleasantly tells us.

"I believe," says he, "I must say something as to the whereabouts of the place, more especially as it was only this spring that a learned countryman of ours, whom spleen or the fidgets had driven so far from his usual haunts about Westminster Hall, declared with open eyes and gaping mouth that he had discovered Pest! Here was a city, Buda-Pest, of more than one hundred thousand inhabitants, of which this learned gentleman was, up to the time of his visit, entirely ignorant.

"For one hundred and forty-five years did the Turks remain masters of Buda: yet almost the only evidences of their former dominion are some baths near the Danube, and the tomb of a saint; the former of which are still used by the Christians, and the latter is sometimes visited by a pious Moslem pilgrim. The Turkish baths, which are supplied by natural sulphur-springs, are small-vaulted rooms, with steps leading down to the bottom, along which the bathers lie at different depths. If I might judge from my feelings merely, I should say that the steam which arises from these springs is much hotter than the water itself; for, though it was quite painful to support the heat of the steam, the water appeared only moderately warm.

"It is not easy to imagine a more perfect contrast than is presented by the environs of Pest and Buda: the one, a bare sandy plain; the other, hill and valley, beautifully varied with rock and wood. Hitherto this romantic neighbourhood has been sadly neglected: but as the taste for the picturesque is extended, and the wealthy citizens of Pest begin to desire the imaginary importance conferred by landed possessions, and the real luxury of country-houses, the hills of Buda will be as well covered with suburban villas and mimic castles as Richmond or Hampstead. At present, the taste for the picturesque is, perhaps, as little felt in Hungary as in almost any country in Europe. The negligence with which the position of a house is commonly chosen, the absence of gardens and parks, or, if present, the bad taste with which they are laid out, and the carelessness with which they are kept, are strong evidence of this deficiency.

"The stillness of Buda contrasts very strongly with the active bustle of Pest. Buda is the residence of the bureaucracy of Hungary, and there is always about these gentry a certain sedateness of air, and not unfrequently a pompous vacancy of expression which has nothing analogous to the haughty look of the rich noble, or the quick glance of the enterprising merchant of Pest; and Buda seems to have caught the complexion of its inhabitants. The royal palace, occupied by the Palatine, the residence of the commander of the garrison, and the houses of two or three great families, give an air of dignity, but not of life, to the town: and as we walked round the ramparts, and admired its beautiful position, it was quite a relief that the establishment of a permanent bridge would soon restore to Buda its share of life and prosperity, of which its young and lusty rival seemed in danger of robbing it entirely.

"The railroad from Vienna through Raab to Buda, not dreamed of at the time of our visit, though now in active preparation, will do much to raise the importance of Buda still higher. Since 1836 no less than four or five lines of railroad traversing Hungary in every direction have been proposed, and some of them actually undertaken. The success of steam navigation has given a stimulus to enterprise and speculation in Hungary, from which the country will eventually reap a golden harvest.

"One hundred and fifty years ago, Pest, now so beautiful and flourishing, was a mere heap of ruins; its mud walls broken down, its houses destroyed, and its few inhabitants flying from the desolation around them. At that time, too, a Turkish Pasha sat in the fortress of Buda, and nearly half of Hungary was subject to his sway. In one hundred and fifty years, then, has this place

* It may be as well to remark at once, that the word Magyar should be pronounced Mád-yôr.

grown to its present size; from a miserable ruin, it has become one of the capitals of Europe! Nor does Pest owe its rise to the fiat of a monarch, who could raise a Potsdam or a Carlsruhe from the desert, but to the energy of the people and its own natural advantages. Situated nearly in the centre of one of the richest countries in the world, on the banks of a river which traverses more than half of Europe, surrounded by a population requiring a supply of almost every article of luxury from abroad, chosen by fashion as the metropolis, with a good climate, and capable of unlimited extent on every side, it requires but little sagacity to foresee a brilliant future for Buda-Pest. No one can wish its prosperity more sincerely than the author of these pages; for he believes that with it is closely associated the prosperity of all Hungary, and perhaps too the independence of the east of Europe."

Before quitting Buda-Pest, we must introduce our readers to one of the "noble spirits" of Hungary, Count Széchenyi.

"Count Széchenyi István is the third son of the founder and benefactor of the museum of Pest, a scion of the same house which produced two of the most distinguished archbishops of Hungary. For seventeen years Széchenyi served in the Austrian army; and it was not till the peace had rendered it an idle life, and removed all chance of distinction, that he determined to quit it. Perhaps, disgusted with the system of favouritism, or the personal enmity which had kept him down to the rank of captain; perhaps moved by that spirit of regeneration which, from the mountains of Transylvania, spread over the plains of Hungary, and was felt even at the gates of Vienna itself; or, it may be, warned that the freedom with which he had dared, under the influence of this spirit, in his place as an Hungarian Magnate, to address the upper chamber, was inconsistent with the uniform he wore;—such have been suggested as among the causes which may have driven him from the army, and which soon placed him in the foremost rank of Hungarian patriots.

"The leisure which he now enjoyed was occupied in foreign travel. England particularly fixed his notice. Our manners, our institutions, our commerce, were objects of his study, and offered him useful hints for the improvement of his native land. The causes which impeded the introduction of commerce in Hungary, and the great development of her natural resources which must result from their removal, first occupied his attention. At home, he found a government and people mutually distrustful. The Hungarians complained to him that foreign—so they called Austrian—jealousy and oppression were the sole causes of all their misfortunes; while, beyond the Carpathians, he heard his countrymen described as a tyrannical, ignorant, and turbulent nobility, the oppressors of a poor, idle, and slavish peasantry;—the one class who would not, the other who could not, effect anything for the common advantage of their country. On all sides, a reform in Hungary was declared impossible.

"Széchenyi was not to be turned from his object. His plan was cautiously laid down, and has been so far steadily followed up,—to labour incessantly at improvements, and to pursue such only as the strength of his means gave him a reasonable hope that with unwearied perseverance he might carry through. In common with others, he has always striven for the great objects of reform in the laws and institutions of the country, an extension of the rights of the lower classes, and a more equitable and just government; but his great and peculiar glory is in the path which he has marked out alone, and which, in spite of all obstacles, he still follows with the greatest success,—namely, the improvement of the material condition of Hungary.

"The system so long and so ably followed up, of Germanising Hungary, had succeeded to such a degree as to destroy, to a considerable extent, the feelings of nationality among the higher nobles: most of them were ignorant of the language; few of them took any interest in the affairs of Hungary, except in the preservation of their own privileges; and some even affected to despise their countrymen, because of a little outward rudeness, of which the absenteeism pursued by the more polished and wealthy was the main cause. Fortunately the well-wishers of Hungary knew how influential a principle the spirit of nationality is in the regeneration of a country; nor did they forget how strongly the language of one's childhood, with which man's earliest and dearest associations are connected, acts in exciting that spirit.

"The restoration of the Hungarian language was therefore the first object. Széchenyi himself, from disuse, was no longer master of it: he made himself so, and became one of the most influential in its diffusion. He was the first in the chamber of Magnates who spoke in Hungarian; till then Latin was always used in the

debates, as, we have seen, it still is by the Palatine and by the court party. Few thought of reading Hungarian; still fewer, except some poets, of writing in it: Széchenyi published several political works in the language, and Hungarian authorship has become fashionable. Among men it is now the medium of conversation; at public dinners, toasts and speeches in German would not be listened to; and at Pest, whatever may be the case at Vienna, Hungarian gentlemen are now ashamed to be thought ignorant of the Hungarian language.

"The establishment of a society for the development of the Hungarian language was proposed by Széchenyi in the diet, and was, as usual, met by innumerable objections, of which the want of funds was the most cogent. 'I willingly contribute one year's income' (6000*l.*), said Széchenyi; 'I second it with 4000*l.*,' said Count Károlyi György: the example was catching, and 30,000*l.* were soon subscribed.

"I have some hesitation in speaking of the writings of Count Széchenyi, for I have never been able to master the difficulties of the language, and we all know that translations, even the best, convey but indifferently the spirit of the original. Many of his works, too, have not been translated, and of these I can only give the title-page. It would be, however, too great an omission not to speak of what has produced so great an effect; and I shall therefore give a short analysis (from the German translation) of his 'Hitel,' or 'Credit,' the work which has been most extensively read, and which has gained him the most fame.

"The 'Hitel' is an inquiry into the causes of the want of commercial credit in Hungary, with suggestions for their removal. In the introduction, Count Széchenyi attacks one of the great drawbacks on Hungarian progress,—the want of a common purpose, and a common opinion. 'All are anxious to build,' he writes, 'and every one at the same building; but unfortunately each wishes to lay his foundation-stone in a different spot, and begin his work in a different style. Many would like to commence in the middle, and some seem to think the best plan of building a house is to begin with the roof. Few set themselves to work at the foundation. 'Oh! if the Ludovica road in Croatia were but toll-free!' says one.—'Give me rather a suspension-bridge between Buda and Pest!' answers another.—'First of all, let us lay out a promenade along the banks of the Danube, and plant it with trees; and while they are growing up, we shall have time to'—'No, no; I say a Magyar theatre, and the Magyar language: that will keep up our nationality!'—'Ah!' says another, 'if our rich Magnates would only come and live at home, instead of spending all their money in foreign lands, and take a part in our county meetings!'—'Tut, man!' grumbles a neighbour, 'that's all nothing; if they would not bring those nasty foreign fashions into the country,—those shoes and stockings, instead of stout Magyar boots,—and those great hairy—how do they call them?—*colliers' Greas*, in which they hide their honest Magyar faces!'—'The paper-money is our ruin, friend!' observes one; 'if we could only get hold of Kremnitz ducats, and keep Hungarian gold and silver within the boundaries of Hungary; then—' 'Nay,' answers a second, 'but the salt-tax! if the salt-tax was but lower!' and so on to the end of the chapter. Every man believes his own plan so much the best and wisest, that, without it, no step can be made in the march of Hungarian improvement."

"Others again, he adds, lay all the blame on government; others lament that Hungary's glory is past, and mourn the olden time. To all he answers, 'Seek what is practical, depend on yourselves for your reform, and keep well in mind that the star of Hungary's glory has yet to shine.'

"In Hungary, a want of unity between the different ranks of the nobility, an absence of a common feeling, and of something like a general opinion, have been long among the most acknowledged causes of inaction. Every class discusses apart the subject of immediate interest, forms its own opinion of public events, and its own plans for public reforms: the accordance which gives strength and force to action is wanting. This deficiency was universally acknowledged; but without a free press, and with a Diet sitting but rarely, and then at a distance from the capital and centre of the country, without reports of the debates, without even a national literature, and in the midst of the bitterest jealousies of caste and class, what remedy could be proposed? Széchenyi had seen the clubs in London; and with that singular talent, which he eminently possesses, of appropriating and adapting whatever he finds good in other countries to the wants and deficiencies of Hungary, he at once perceived how useful their organisation might be made to effect a greater purpose than that of serv-

ing as mere pride-protectors for poor gentlemen, or of furnishing the selfish enjoyment of the greatest luxury at the cheapest rate. A club, or—to avoid a name associated on the Continent with certain reminiscences of the French revolution—a Casino, while entirely free from any political scheme, would afford to all the upper classes an opportunity of meeting, and becoming better acquainted with each other's good qualities; it would harmonise and generalise opinions, and improve the manners and the tone of feeling, besides affording opportunities for reading all the journals of Europe—an advantage which few private individuals could command.

"At Pest, accordingly, a Casino was established on a most magnificent scale, as we shall see hereafter; and now no less than one hundred exist in different parts of Hungary and Transylvania.

"One of Széchenyi's favourite plans is the embellishment and aggrandisement of Pest. For this purpose he has laboured to have the Casino on so handsome a scale; to build a national Magyar theatre; and, more than all, to raise a permanent bridge between Pest and Buda. At present there is only a bridge of boats between the two towns, which is taken up during six months in the year; and the whole communication during that period is carried on by means of ferry-boats, or over the ice. At certain times, particularly during the freeze and thaw, not to speak of storms and fogs, this produces much inconvenience, and is often attended with great danger.

"To remove so great a drawback to the prosperity of the two cities, Széchenyi has proposed to build a bridge across the river, either of stone or iron as may appear best; and, as the width is only a quarter of a mile, it would not appear so difficult an undertaking. Of course, it was declared impossible: one said the Danube was too wide, another found it too deep, and a third declared that if the bridge was all finished, the first winter's ice would carry it away. English as well as German engineers have thought otherwise; and it is a certain fact, that Trajan's Bridge, three hundred miles lower down, stood firm enough till Hadrian destroyed it.

"These, however, were not the greatest impediments to be overcome. Count Széchenyi had a still greater object in view than the improvement of Pest in the building of this bridge; he proposed to teach the Hungarian nobles the advantage of paying taxes. The bridge was to be built by money raised in shares; the interest on which was to be paid by tolls, to which every one, noble or ignoble, should contribute. What! an Hungarian noble pay taxes? A hornet's nest is a feeble comparison to the buzz these gentlemen raised about Széchenyi's ears. It was no matter: he inveighed against them at the Diet, he wrote at them in the journals, he ridiculed them in private, and in the end he conquered them; a bill passed both chambers, by which the legal taxation of the nobles in the form of a bridge-toll was acknowledged. The Juxer Curie shed tears on the occasion, and declared 'he would never pass that ill-fated bridge, from the erection of which he should date the downfall of the Hungarian nobility.'

The construction of this "great work" has been entrusted to W. Tierney Clarke, Esq., and a view of it adorns Mr. Paget's second volume. But the exertions of this illustrious nobleman do not close their amount with the suspension-bridge.

"One of the greatest of Széchenyi's achievements is the steam navigation of the Danube. This is his own idea and in accomplishment. It is now about six years since he first undertook the voyage from Pest to the Black Sea. A comfortable decked boat, a good cook, and a pleasant companion, with the means and appurtenances for shooting, fishing, sketching, and rowing, were not bad preparations against the fatigues and dangers to which he expected to be exposed. The comparative ease and safety of the navigation, the magnificence of the scenery, the size and importance of the tributary streams which poured their waters into the Danube, and the richness of the country on its banks, were secrets revealed to a mind which felt their full force, and happily knew how to employ them. Of course, the timid set him down as mad for undertaking such a journey; but when he returned and ventured to whisper the possibility of steam navigation, even his best friends shook their heads. 'Steam in Hungary! yes, indeed, in another century!' said those who never think the present the time for action. 'Steam, indeed, in the shallows and rapids of the Danube! No; if we must have steam, why not take the plains? Nature has laid them out for rail-roads,' said others, who oppose everything practicable by proposing something impracticable. Széchenyi let the first wait their time: to the second he recommended a speedy commencement of the rail-road, that the

country might derive advantage from one, if not from both of their schemes.

"In pursuance of his own plan, Széchenyi went over again to England, studied carefully the principles of steam navigation; brought over English engineers; and, when at last certain of the practicability of the scheme, formed a company and purchased a steam boat. It was in October 1830 that the first steam-boat steamed between Semlin and Pest; the communication is now complete from Vienna, and will soon be so from Ratisbon to Smyrna. Thirteen vessels are employed, and a number more building.

Here for the present we conclude; but in our next number we will draw still more upon the interesting volumes of Mr. Paget; and endeavour to complete our view of Hungary with a glimpse of Transylvania.

ALLIGATORS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

COUNTED thirty-nine alligators, all of which were lying close together in one extended line. Some of them were very large. It is really horrible to witness them devouring that large fish called the *bagre*, for which they lie in wait in the current and eddies of the river. They bring their huge jaws together upon their prey with a great noise and splashing, and then raise their heads out of the water in order to devour them, which occupies more time than would be expected in such a monster. Should they happen to seize upon the fish crosswise, they have great trouble in placing it in a straight position that they may swallow it; the blood running all the time over their hideous jaws. They sleep a great deal in the sun, with their mouths wide extended. Our boat would frequently get within an oar's length of one without waking it up; and at this short distance, once or twice I poured a whole cargo of duck-shot directly into his throat; but whether he survived or not, I could not determine, as it invariably got to the water again. When we were about half a league from Los dos Caños, we stopped for the night: the Bogas stretched their straw mats on a beautiful *playa* (sand-bar) of white sand. These mats, with their *toldas* over their heads, are the only beds they have. Moving around a large fire in the night, cooking their supper, with the white *toldas* raised around, they would form an excellent tableau for a painter. These fires are also essential for warding off the attacks of the tigers and other wild beasts, whose tracks are to be distinctly traced on every *playa* in the river. All night long the splashing of the *caymans* is to be heard as they pounce upon the unlucky fish; and it was with the greatest difficulty that I could pacify the women, and convince them of the impossibility of those animals reaching their heads above the gunwale and lugging them off.—*Steuart's Bogota.*

MANCHESTER MECHANICS' INSTITUTION.

THIS institution was established in the year 1824, "for the purpose," as settled at a general meeting of the honorary members, held the 28th day of July in the same year, "of enabling mechanics and artisans, of whatever trade they may be, to become acquainted with such branches of science as are of practical application to the exercise of that trade; that they may possess a more thorough knowledge of their business, acquire a greater degree of skill in the practice of it, and be qualified to make improvements, and even new inventions, in the arts which they respectively profess."

At the commencement of its career of usefulness, a room was opened for the purpose of furthering its avowed objects. It was soon found, however, that it would be advisable, in order to attain the ends for which the institution was established, to provide a larger, more suitable, and convenient building. Accordingly it was determined that one should be erected; and we learn from a statement made December 24th, 1827, that it was completed at a cost of 7019*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* The building is divided into 11 shares of 634*l.* 15*s.* each, which sums, together with 377*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* interest, were the means by which the first building, built avowedly for a Mechanics' Institution in England or elsewhere, was erected. From the report of the directors of 1828, which is the first to which we have access, we learn that the number of subscribers then on the books, who had paid their subscriptions up to Midsummer in that year, was 471; that the number of books delivered to the subscribers during the year, to be read at their own houses, was 10,927; in the preceding year, 6639.

The first delivery of prizes to the most proficient members of the various classes, was on the 12th January, 1829, on which occasion Sir George Phillips, Bart., who had always been a sincere

and liberal friend to the institution, delivered an address to the members, in which was contained the following piece of strong advice, although by some it may be condemned as otherwise.

"There is one recommendation which I would take the liberty of suggesting to such persons as are desirous to profit by the means of instruction held out by this institution. If the nature of their employments, and their own inclinations, or a peculiar aptitude, which is now and then shown, for any particular art or science, should lead them to cultivate it, let them give to such art or science the whole of their leisure, and concentrate upon it all the powers of their understanding. A near relation of the late Mr. Watt once told me, that his advice to him when a young man was, to make himself master of one subject, and to learn as much of others as he could. This is the proper advice to be given to all persons in every rank and station in life."

The next distribution of prizes occurred on the 14th January, 1834, on which occasion Viscount Morpeth was present, and delivered an appropriate address to the successful competitors.

It is to be regretted that distributions of prizes are not of more frequent occurrence; why such should not be the case every year, it is difficult to assign a reason. The expense of so doing, some twelve or fifteen guineas, would be but a small amount, if weighed in the scale with the ultimate good which would accrue to the classes, the members of those classes, and consequently to the institution itself. By making it a rule to have annual distributions of prizes to the most proficient members of the various classes, the directors would instil in the breasts of the members of the institution generally a spirit of emulation for excellence, which, whilst it would exalt their characters in the eyes of their neighbours, teach them the benefit and advantage, to say nothing of the pleasure, in excelling in some particular art or science, and raise their moral and intellectual endowments, would also prepare them to fill the various offices of trust in the institution, when the present officers shall have retired, either from the infirmities of old age, or any other of the many causes by which they may be removed. We do not say that these are the only benefits likely to arise, but we contend that they are advantages which alone would justify the adoption of the custom. The state of literature at the present day, it cannot be denied, is such, as will do anything but stamp, in future times, the taste of the present generation as refined or intellectual. It is then the duty of directors of all institutions, having for their objects the advancement and diffusion of knowledge, by every means in their power to infuse into the breasts of the rising generation, whose rights they, for the time being, are elected to protect, such a spirit of emulation and desire for the obtaining and advancing of knowledge as will raise them, in point of moral and intellectual culture, above the general class of men at the present day. In the distribution of prizes, this institution has led the way, at least in Manchester, and we sincerely hope, ere long, to see the plan followed up by every institution of a like nature in the kingdom. We have been led into this expression of our opinion, from the very strong feelings which we have of the good which the adoption of the custom may be the means of effecting.

On the 21st July, 1835, the institution was honoured by a visit from Lord Brougham, who addressed the members in a most friendly yet earnest manner. His Lordship, after his address, accompanied by the directors and several of the earliest friends of the institution, visited the several class and apparatus rooms, in which he appeared to take great interest; and, before departing, expressed himself highly gratified with the general arrangements of the institution, and with the kind reception the directors had given him.

The debt on the building had long been felt as a great drawback on the objects for which the institution was established; accordingly strenuous endeavours have been made to liquidate it. The first step to that desirable end was the opening of an exhibition of works of art, &c., in the Christmas of 1837; a second was held in the Christmas of 1838; and a third is about to be held in the ensuing Easter week. The success of the first exhibition (for it was the first ever held for such a purpose), has been the means of encouraging directors of other institutions to have them; and with what success is known to every one who is at all conversant with the passing events of the present day. A second step to the liquidation of the debt was converting the honorary subscriptions of 1*l.* 1*s.* per annum to life subscriptions of 10*l.* 10*s.*;—a number of gentlemen, honorary members, immediately acceded to this proposal. A third step for the like end was holding a bazaar for the sale of fancy, useful, and ornamental articles: it was held in the course of last autumn, and was most successful. The debt at present

remaining it is hoped will be soon liquidated; the endeavours of the directors to do so have hitherto been most praiseworthy.

The number of subscribers to the institution at the close of 1838 was 1161. The following is a classification of their respective employments:—

Principals, engaged as merchants, manufacturers, and machinists	263
Mechanics, millwrights, and engineers	104
Overlookers, spinners, and other mill hands	33
Building trades	89
Sundry trades, chiefly handicraft	105
Warehousemen	173
Clerks	86
Artists, architects, engravers, &c.	47
Professional men	8
Schoolmasters	12
Shopkeepers and their assistants	69
No profession	12
Ladies	8
Youths	182
	1161

The evenings set apart for lectures are Monday and Friday. It is the opinion of several of the older members of the institution that in this department there is room for extensive improvement; they complain that the nature of the lectures has not been of a sufficiently popular character to hold any inducement to the members for regular attendance; be this as it may, great credit is due to the directors in catering for the taste of the members to the best of their judgment and means.

The library is a great attraction to the members. At the close of 1838 it contained 5036 volumes, classified as below. The works are of the most approved authors in the various departments of literature.

	WORKS.	VOLS.
Pure sciences	216	312
Mixed sciences	737	1635
History	463	1167
Polite literature	587	1853
Parliamentary reports	10	15
Pamphlets bound	24	26
Appendix unclassified	18	20
Further additions		8
		5036

The deliveries of books for reading for the 12 months ending February, 1839, were 42,451 volumes; and judging from the condition in which a great number appear, we may justly infer that they are well read.

The reading-room is opened daily from half-past nine a.m., to half-past nine p.m. During the evenings there is a large attendance of members. There are a great number of the most popular and instructing periodicals of the present day placed on the tables, to enumerate which would occupy too much room; as a specimen of the whole, we may mention—*Edinburgh Review*; *London and Westminster Review*; *Quarterly Review*; *Jamieson's Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal*; *Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine*; *Bentley's Miscellany*; *Fraser's Magazine*; *Tait's Magazine*; *London and Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine*; *Monthly Chronicle*; *London Saturday Journal*; *Athenæum*; *Chambers's Edinburgh Journal*, and the *Mirror*. There are, in the whole, 51 magazines.

The various classes are in general well attended, commencing at half-past seven, and concluding at ten o'clock. The reports of the masters each contain gratifying accounts of the pupils. Occasionally the members meet (more especially those classes carried on by mutual instruction) and take coffee together in the institution, at which meetings much information and instruction is conveyed by the conversation which takes place in the course of the evening; some popular question on a science, or branch of a science, being introduced in a short paper by a member of the class. The adoption of this custom, so well adapted for binding the members in one harmonious mass, is attributable, we believe, to the suggestion of the right worthy and generous president of the institution, Sir Benjamin Heywood, Bart. The following is a list of the classes:—

Grammar; architectural drawing; arithmetic; elocution and composition; mechanical drawing; chemistry (mutual instruction); landscape and figure drawing; vocal music; mutual improvement society; natural history (mutual instruction); writing; algebra, geometry, and mensuration; French; instrumental

music. There is also a select class for the study of logic and mental philosophy on the plan of mutual instruction.

The subscription is 1*l*. per annum, payable yearly, half-yearly, or quarterly. Ladies are admitted as members on the same terms. Such is a short and condensed account of an institution which has already conferred lasting and innumerable benefits on the working classes; it has taken its stand as one of the foremost in point of regular and disciplined government, and as containing advantages rarely to be met with in any institution of a similar nature, and on the like terms. It is inferior we believe to none save those at Glasgow and London*, and we fervently hope it may long keep its place, and still continue to afford that knowledge to the working classes of Manchester, which will enable them to pass through life, with credit to themselves, their kinsmen, and their country.

THE PHYSICIAN'S LEVEE.

THERE is a certain atmosphere of gloom and sunshine, of hope and fear, of meek expectancy and impatience, of curiosity and abstraction, of calm and restlessness, which pervades the antechamber of a skilful physician, and which never fails to have its effect on the spirits of a visitor.

Some years ago, circumstances brought me, among many others who were in search of health, into an apartment such as I have alluded to. On entering the room, the stillness which prevailed was almost death-like. I seated myself on the first vacant chair, and as, happily, the cause of my visit to Dr. D. was not one of absorbing interest, I suffered my mind and my eyes to rove as they listed, and endeavoured to while away the time by translating, as it were, the characters and feelings of my companions. Sometimes a whisper of slight impatience met my ear; sometimes a sigh from a solitary individual, who appeared ashamed of the weakness, and whose short cough betrayed his nervous sensations. Opposite to me sat an interesting girl, of about eighteen, attended by a lady, who watched her young charge with an anxiety truly maternal. The hectic flush which mantled on the fair cheek of the youthful invalid bespoke that cruel disease, consumption. When the summons came for them to go to the physician's private room, the face of the elder lady became pale, and her voice trembled as the words "Come, my love," passed from her lips.

I was musing on the early doom that seemed to await this gentle maiden, when she and her companion returned. The bright smile of hope illumined both their countenances, and they appeared unconscious of any witnesses of their feelings. "Dr. D. considers me much better, dearest aunt; so now you must not be uneasy any longer," said the younger lady. Her aunt looked at her fondly, and replied that her mind was greatly relieved—that she felt quite happy. "God grant thou mayest be spared, since thou art so much loved!" ejaculated I mentally, as the fair girl quitted the room.

My attention was now directed to the solitary person whose stifled sighs had told me that his sufferings were real, and patiently borne. He was scarcely in the prime of life, but his cheeks were sunk and wan. His eyes were too bright and sparkling for one whose visage was so mournful; his apparel hung loosely on his attenuated limbs. He sat there, waiting his turn, without speaking to any one, absorbed apparently in his own thoughts. "Has he no mother, no sister, no wife?" said I to myself; for with the idea of illness, that of a female comforter seems always associated. But the door opened—the invalid slowly tottered towards it, and before it closed again, an aged man, whose garb, though extremely clean, bespoke penury, walked meekly into the room, and sinking down into a chair close to the door, he held his worn hat between

his knees, casting his eyes down to the ground. A few white locks strayed over his broad, high forehead, and the expression of his face was full of intelligence. It was evident that he was not an invalid himself, but was anxious about some one who was. I saw him put his hand into his waistcoat pocket, and take from it a very small paper parcel; he looked at it, pressed it between his fingers, as if to ascertain that its contents were safe, and then replaced it in his pocket. "It is the physician's fee," thought I; "but Dr. D. will not take it from one so poor as thou."

Near to this venerable man sat a young mother and her infant child. How tenderly she pressed the little sufferer to her heart, and how sadly she seemed to gaze on its fair countenance! Ever and anon she parted the sunny locks that waved with natural grace over its snowy forehead, and frequently her lips moved, as she raised her tear-filled eyes to Heaven. She was praying for her child.

There was little to be remarked in the remaining individuals who were waiting the doctor's summons. Some carelessly turned over the leaves of the books that were lying on the table; some examined the paintings that decorated the apartment; and all seemed impressed with a solemn consciousness that they were surrounded by suffering humanity.

By degrees the room became cleared, and I found myself alone with the old man whom I have before described. When the summons came for me, I perceived a flush pass across his venerable face; he half-rose from his seat, pressed his hand to the corner of his waistcoat pocket, then sat down again, and his features resumed their former patient expression. I could not resist the impulse I felt to speak to him. "You are, perhaps, more pressed for time than I am," said I; "pray go now to Dr. D., and say that I can wait. Give him this card, and he will attend to you first."

"Heaven reward you, sir!" replied he. "My only child, the sole joy of my old age, lies dangerously ill, and I am told that Dr. D. is very skilful; so I am come to consult him. It is a long distance to my home, and my poor boy will have no rest while his father is absent." The old man's voice faltered, and I felt an uneasy sensation in my throat, which made me afraid to risk saying more than "Well, lose no time, go at once."

As soon as he was gone, I began to hum a tune—and yet I was in no merry mood; but often, when my spirit has been sad, some old air has pertinaciously rung in my "mind's" ear, and to get rid of it, as a humorous friend of mine would say, I have sung it. My melodious powers, however, soon received a check, for a double rap at the street-door announced a fresh visitor. I heard the servant say, "It is past twelve, sir; Dr. D. cannot receive any more patients to-day." "I will not detain him five minutes," replied a deep, clear, manly voice. "Pray tell your master that this is a case of great importance."

The servant was evidently reluctant to go, but I concluded the speaker had prevailed upon him to do so, as I heard his retreating steps in the hall; and presently the parlour door opened, and a trio entered which immediately attracted my attention. The party consisted of a lady in a widow's dress, and her son and daughter, who were in deep mourning. The lady was apparently about five-and-forty years of age, and seemed very ill. Her duteous and anxious children were so completely engrossed by their attentions to their suffering parent, that they did not appear to perceive me. They carefully supported her to the sofa, and then in a voice whose silvery tones I shall never forget, the young lady said, "Well, sweet mother, you have borne this fatigue bravely; and surely that is an earnest of future good."

"Bless thee, my child!" faintly answered the invalid; and as she raised her head, I had an opportunity of seeing her beautiful

* For an account of the London Mechanics' Institution, see the 26th Number of the "London Saturday Journal."

eyes, which were of the deepest blue, and shaded by long, dark, silken lashes. Her complexion was fair and transparent; her nose and mouth most delicately formed; and there was an angelic sweetness of expression in her countenance, which I have never seen surpassed—seldom equalled. Disease had indeed weakened the fragile frame, but it had not marred the lovely visage, nor destroyed the graceful form. The young man strongly resembled his mother in features and expression; but his complexion and hair were dark, his forehead lofty and finely formed. His sister had the softest dark eyes imaginable; and her hair was of that beautiful glossy black that is so seldom seen, and which requires no art to give it lustre; her figure was fairy-like and graceful, and her small foot and hand were the very perfection of beauty. And there they sat—the brother and sister—one on either side of their patient mother, watching, with all the touching earnestness of filial affection, for the slightest intimation of her wishes. They *did* love her, they *did* revere her; she was their joy, their treasure, their idol, and they thought not that she could die.

I was now again summoned to attend my good friend Dr. D.; and as my visit was merely one of dismissal, I soon put an end to the subject of my own health, and told the physician how deeply interested I felt in the party who had just arrived. Dr. D. smiled in his usual benevolent way. He had known me from a child, and was aware that I was somewhat of an enthusiast and a castle-builder. How delighted I used to be when I was permitted to listen to that excellent man's discourse!—his language was so flowing and elegant, so illustrative of his superior tone of thought. Often have his patients forgotten their complaints whilst he dilated on Nature's beauties, or on the Creator's goodness. Never did he prescribe for their suffering bodies without directing their hearts and minds to Him who alone could bless the means used for their recovery. If all physicians resembled Dr. D., how many a dying pillow would be rendered smooth! how many a mourner would be comforted!

When I took my leave of the doctor, I did not quit the house. It was not an impertinent curiosity that influenced my stay, but an undefinable anxiety to know more of the group I had left in the parlour: so I re-entered the room as they quitted it, and tried to persuade myself that I had forgotten something which I ought to have said to my physician.

The young man assisted his mother to the private apartment, and then returned. We conversed together for half an hour, and were beginning to forget—at least *I* was—that our acquaintance was so recent, when the son was called to attend his parent. I watched them from the window;—how gently he assisted the poor sufferer into the carriage! then handed his sister in, and shutting the door, he bade the coachman drive slowly on; then returning into the house, he went to the doctor's room, and remained with him some time.

When the being we hold most dear is the sufferer, it requires no small degree of firmness to ask the *direct* question, "Is there any danger?" There is a breathless anxiety for the answer, which none but those who have experienced it can have an idea of. Hope and fear struggle for the mastery; and if the response be unfavourable, the questioner feels stupified, and even the meek spirit of the most resigned Christian is bowed by grief too intense to be described.

When the affectionate son—for such he evidently was—re-entered the antechamber, his manly countenance was expressive of strong and painful emotion. As he drew on his gloves, he said "No hope! no hope!" and a deep sigh followed the involuntary exclamation. My heart bled for him: I, too, had lost an adored mother; I knew what it was to be a mourner. But I could not

speak—sympathy is often silent: I held out my hand to him; he grasped it with the frankness of an old friend. Sorrow frequently prepares the way for friendship; it did in this instance. Three months after this our first meeting, the brother and sister and I were assembled in a small, tastefully fitted-up drawing-room; but she for whom it had been decorated was no more! We were all three mourners, but we did not "sorrow as those who have no hope;"—we loved to talk of the departed, and we looked for a reunion with them in a "better land."

SAGO BREAD.

As the method of preparing a very wholesome and delicious variety of scone with sago and flour is not generally known, we give it to our readers:—

Put into a basin two heaped teacupfuls of pearl sago; pour upon it about as much boiling water as its own bulk: stir them together smartly, during the space of about a minute; add another cupful of dry sago, which must be kept stirring during half a minute more; then cover the basin closely, and allow it to stand till the contents will have become cold enough not to scald the hand; then proceed actively with the hand to work wheaten flour into the mixture, and continue to do so till it becomes a very stiff dough, which may then be formed into scones, about a quarter of an inch thick, dusted over with flour, and baked on a plate of cast-iron (*Scottie's*, a girdle), over a kitchen fire. In this batch the flour will be equal in weight to about two-thirds of the sago. Another method is to keep out the dry sago, and add flour enough to form the dough; but this kind of scone, though more smooth, tough, and fine-looking, is neither more agreeable nor more nutritious than the other. Either of these forms the most delicious of all bread; and while it is greatly preferable to common flour-bread for those who have but little out-door exercise, its cheapness cannot fail to recommend it to those who still believe economy to be a virtue. To each teacupful of scalded sago, it is necessary to add a small teaspoonful of salt, which should be put into the water before it quite boils; and the scones should be pricked with a table-fork, or small pointed wooden pin. To some it may be proper to say, that the cast-iron plate for baking the scones should not be laid on a fire stronger than that generally kept in a room; and that the scone should be allowed to lie about two or three minutes and a half on each side upon the plate, the plate being previously heated.

NEW ZEALAND AND EMIGRATION.

HAVING in our last Number briefly described the soil, climate, and natural productions of New Zealand, and the condition of the native population, we now proceed to the consideration of the progress made towards its colonisation by Europeans, and the objects aimed at by the New Zealand Company.

We have already mentioned that the missionaries were the earliest colonists, and, since their first settlement, they have gone on steadily extending the sphere of their influence with the natives, on whom their labours and example have wrought very beneficial effects. The Church Missionary Society has now ten stations in the Northern Island, the chief establishment being at the Bay of Islands; thirty-five persons being employed as missionaries, catechists, &c.; there are fifty-four schools of the same Society, containing 1431 scholars; and the total number of persons forming the ten congregations are stated to be 2476, of whom 178 are communicants. There are five Wesleyan missionaries, besides teachers of the same denomination; and the establishments of that sect are represented as growing in importance. The missionaries possess very considerable landed property, as public bodies; and many of them individually, as private persons, have made most extensive purchases, for which a very trifling remuneration has been given. Among other transactions of this sort, we may instance one effected by Mr. Wm. Fairburn, a catechist, who owns several small tracts at the Bay of Islands, adjoining the mission station of Paihia; and, in 1836, purchased a very extensive tract, supposed to extend for thirty miles in its greatest length, at Tamaka in the Frith of the Thames. Its extent is such that it has been described as a whole county. The consideration given was a quantity of goods, chiefly blankets and working-tools, worth not more than 150*l*.

The missionaries, however, are not the only settlers. "The country," says Mr. Ward, "has been partially colonised by other Englishmen of a very different description. There are upwards of two thousand British subjects now settled in different parts of the islands, of whom several hundreds consist of a most worthless class of persons,—such as runaway sailors, convicts who have escaped from the penal colonies of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, keepers of grog-shops, and other vagabonds of dissolute habits. Besides these settlers, there are always many temporary sojourners,—the crews of trading and whaling vessels, some of whom are generally to be found in the bays and harbours of both islands." From the want of regular laws the presence of British subjects, such as have been just described, has proved a curse to the natives. The crimes committed by some captains of British vessels have been so atrocious as to be hardly credible.

The attempt of an adventurer, styling himself the Baron de Thierry, to establish himself as a sovereign among the New Zealanders, attracted a great deal of attention. He laid claim to a very extensive territory; and professed to rely upon moral influence for exercising a kind of assumed sovereignty. The baron, however, made no adequate provision for the accomplishment of his objects. He was abandoned by the party who had followed him from Sydney, and, in fact, was so far from really acquiring either territory or sovereignty, that, according to late accounts, he was living on the bounty of the natives and European settlers.

The lawless state and desperate characters of the irregular settlers we have described, and the necessity of adequate protection to the industrious colonist, call loudly for a more direct exertion of legitimate authority than the extension of the powers of the courts of justice in New South Wales to British subjects in New Zealand, and the appointment of a resident there,—the only steps yet taken by Government in respect to that country*. Reasons not easily divined, have induced a repugnance in the officers of the Church Missionary Society in England to support any legislative measure for the purpose of the systematic and well-regulated colonisation of New Zealand; although the most respectable British residents there, including many of the missionaries themselves, and many others distinguished for talent and well qualified from their experience to form a sound opinion on the point,—such, for instance, as Mr. Polack, Mr. Montefiore, Mr. Enderby, and Capt. Fitzroy,—all concur in recommending the direct and energetic interference of government. The extent of the concession obtained by means of such representations, was an offer made in 1837, of a grant of a charter to the New Zealand Association then formed, "incorporating and committing to its members the settlement and government of the projected colony for a term of years, according to the precedents of the chartered colonies of North America; but to this offer a condition was attached, that the Association should become a trading joint-stock company, which condition the Association was unable to comply with; having especially excluded from its object all purposes of private profit." Thus disappointed in obtaining support from the executive, the Association turned to the legislature, and "a bill for the provisional government of British settlements in the Island of New Zealand," was brought into parliament by Mr. F. Baring, the chairman of the Association; but, in consequence of the opposition of her majesty's ministers, the bill was thrown out, and the Association was dissolved.

Some of its members, however, were not inclined to abandon their project so easily, and formed the plan of continuing the prosecution of its leading objects, by means of a joint-stock company, with a subscribed capital. Other friends of colonization gradually joined them; and in the spring of 1839 the funds raised were sufficiently ample to enable the Company to purchase an extensive territory in New Zealand (principally the harbours of Hokianga and Kaipara, in the Northern Island), and to fit out and despatch an expedition for the purpose of making further

purchases, fixing the site of a town, and preparing for the early arrival of a body of settlers from England.

The first settlement is intended to be made at the most eligible harbour in Cook's Straits (the passage separating the Northern and Southern Islands) that can be discovered; and here a town is to be laid out, and the work of colonization to commence. Several advantages are expected to result from the choice of this situation for the main settlement. The easy communication with both islands is likely to be beneficial; and Cook's Straits is, moreover, the passage by which vessels returning from Australia by way of Cape Horn, or making the passage to the Bay of Islands, are accustomed to take. The plan of colonization adopted by the Company is similar to that put in practice in South Australia (see No. 12); and from the success which has attended it there, we augur favourably of its results in New Zealand. The first settlement is thus arranged. The site of the town will consist of eleven hundred acres, exclusive of portions marked out for general use; such as quays, streets, squares, and public gardens. The selected country lands will comprise one hundred and ten thousand acres. Their lands will be divided into eleven hundred sections, each section comprising one town acre and one hundred country acres. One hundred and ten sections will be reserved by the Company, who intend to distribute the same as private property amongst the chief families of the tribe, from which the lands shall have been originally purchased. The remainder being nine hundred and ninety sections of one hundred and one acres each, were offered for sale in sections, at the price of 10*l.* for each section, or 1*l.* per acre, and speedily found purchasers, who received land orders. Priority of choice was determined by lot in London, one of the officers of the Company drawing for the section appropriated to the natives, and the choice is to be made on the spot. Twenty-five per cent. of the purchase-money is reserved for the expenses of the Company. The residue is set apart for the purposes of emigration; and purchasers of land orders emigrating with the first colony were entitled to claim from the Company out of that fund an expenditure for their own passage, and that of their families and servants, equal to seventy-five per cent. of their purchase-money, according to regulations framed by the Company, with a view to confining the free passage to actual colonists. The remainder of the emigration fund is set apart for providing a free passage for young persons of the labouring class, and, as far as possible, of the two sexes in equal proportions. The Company offer a free passage to agricultural labourers, shepherds, miners, and those belonging to the several trades specified in their "Regulations*," being actual labourers going out to work for wages in the colony, of sound mind and body, not less than fifteen nor more than thirty years of age, and married: preference being given to those under engagement to work for capitalists going out. The wives and children of emigrants are also taken out free, with the exception of children above one year, and not full seven years old, for each of whom three pounds is charged. A free passage is also offered to single women, provided they go out under the protection of their parents, or near relatives, or under actual engagement as servants to ladies going out as cabin passengers on board the same vessel. The preference being given to those accustomed to farm and dairy work, to sempstresses, straw-plaiters, and domestic servants. Persons not strictly entitled to be conveyed out by the emigration fund, if not disqualified on account of character, will, in the discretion of the directors, be allowed to accompany the free emigrants on paying to the Company the sum of 18*l.* 15*s.* for every such adult person.

At the beginning of the present year ten vessels had been despatched by the Company (one of them entirely devoted to the conveyance of machinery and other extra stores belonging to emigrants), and in all 1123 passengers, men, women, and children, were taken out. The spring will probably bring us accounts of the success they have met with; and we confess, for our own part, that we look for good tidings. Some peculiar advantages seem to attend New Zealand. The fruitful soil is well fitted for wheat; and in Australia is a market, now very inadequately supplied, and dependent in a great degree for that necessary article of food upon India. The native flax at once affords the staple of a valuable manufacture; the resort of shipping continually increas-

In August last, Government, stimulated no doubt by the active operations of the New Zealand Company, sent out a consul with orders to act in concert with the authorities of New South Wales, and furnished with somewhat vague instructions to negotiate with the chiefs for the general recognition of the authority of the British crown; to make purchases on behalf of the crown; and to prohibit British subjects from making for the future any purchases from the natives, restricting them to purchases from the crown. Such a proceeding, unaccompanied by any government plan of emigration, seems only calculated to check, instead of promoting, the prosperity of the islands; but as, before the arrival of this new envoy, the agents of the Company must have been at least four months in the country, they have in all probability secured a sufficient portion of land to permit them to carry out their schemes to their full extent.

* Agricultural labourers, shepherds, miners, bakers, blacksmiths, braziers, and timmen; smiths, shipwrights, boat-builders, wheelwrights, sawyers, cabinet-makers, carpenters, coopers, curriers, farriers, millwrights, harness-makers, boot and shoe makers, tailors, tanners, brick-makers, lime-burners, and all persons engaged in the erection of buildings.

ing, gives an opening to commerce of a very extended nature, and will create a demand for supplies of all kinds; while the natural position of the islands makes them as it were the centre of communication for one half of the globe.

Having now given as clear and succinct account of New Zealand, considered as an emigration field, as our limits permit, we proceed to fulfil the promise given to our correspondents, and say a few words on EMIGRATION generally. We have heretofore expressed our opinions on the subject on several occasions, and may especially refer our readers to the remarks we have made in the paper on "Emigration to Australia," in No. 12 of the LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL; to papers on the same subject in Nos. 15, 42, and 49, and to one on Van Diemen's Land and Port Philip in No. 50. Some remarks concerning it are also to be found at the commencement of this article (in No. 54), and in some of our recent Letter Boxes. We have therefore little new to observe upon. In the first place, let us consider the peculiar character of the principal colonies which present themselves to the choice of the emigrant. Canada presents a field in which the emigrant capitalists, possessed of the knowledge requisite to succeed as agriculturists, — of resolution equal to overcome the disappointment and hardships always incident to a settlement in a new country, and the total disruption of old habits, are pretty certain to succeed. The able-bodied agricultural labourer finds there a ready demand for his services, and by steady, regular conduct, may look forward to establishing himself comfortably. But Canada does not hold out any temptation to those whose previous habits have not qualified them to endure much roughing, or whose knowledge of life has been confined to cities. The Cape of Good Hope affords a good lesson to the rash emigrant who flies from his native land to engage in speculations of whose nature he has failed to inform himself fully. Those who were by education fitted for a pastoral and agricultural life found their account in the enterprise; but many who expected that refined society, employment for the artisan and the manufacturer, — in fact, all the elements of a well-settled country, were to be found in the wilderness, — were woefully mistaken. Little encouragement is at present held out for emigration to the Cape. In Australia we find first the western settlement; a colony at first nearly ruined by a bad system of distributing the lands, but now beginning to revive. The dependence of this colony is upon flocks and herds; the population is necessarily scattered; and there is little encouragement for the artisan or the manufacturer to establish himself in the towns; nor do the infant commercial establishments as yet require a large number to carry them on. Passing on to Southern Australia, we find a settlement founded upon a very different system, but depending for its existence upon the same support as the western settlement. The degree of encouragement for artisans is apparently greater here than at Swan River; the growth of towns being quicker, trades receive more encouragement. But still, both Western and Southern Australia cannot be recommended to any emigrants who do not go out with a prior engagement, or intend to devote themselves, and feel equal to embracing a primitive and pastoral life. Sydney and Hobart Town are subject to the curse of a convict population; but notwithstanding this serious drawback, and the injury done to the latter colony by the injudicious manufacture of paper money (see No. 50), the extensive trade which is carried on in conjunction with the agricultural and pastoral facilities, render them both, viewed solely in relation to profit, very promising fields for emigrants. Of New Zealand we have already spoken fully: its colonization is yet an experiment, and we can only form an opinion as to its probable success.

We have above given what we believe to be a pretty fair estimate of the relative advantages of our several emigration fields; and we now come to the question of who are the proper parties for emigration, a question to which we cannot venture to give any definite reply; so much must, in all cases, depend upon the peculiar circumstances of the inquirer. The only real assistance we can render to our friends, without running the risk of misleading them, is to furnish them with facts, which they, and not we, must apply to their particular case. If, after maturely weighing all the *pros* and *cons*, they find themselves equal to the task, and possessed of an energy that is not likely to fail them at the pinch, let them go on and prosper; following this one golden rule, that the line of occupation they may fix upon as their mainstay, should be that with which they are most familiar, and that their choice of a colony should be regulated accordingly. We have had several inquiries from young single men as to the eligibility of their emigrating. The preponderance of the male over the female population in most, if not all, our colonies is a serious

drawback upon the improvement of society there, and therefore we would not encourage young single men to add to the evil. It would be better to take wives with them; but we are far from recommending any young men to marry merely as a qualification. Setting every other consideration aside, such a step would probably be attended by the serious inconvenience of the inability of the female for exertion just at the time when the utmost activity is necessary. But if he can secure a certain employment beforehand, which will support him and a wife for a time, until he is able to look about him and employ what means he is possessed of to the best advantage, let our young man marry and carry out his bride at once, and his chance of success is very favourable. The young bachelor should also remember that he is not so welcome a guest as the married man, and that his chance of employment is lessened by that consideration. One of our correspondents, a young man who represents himself as one formed of the stuff of which emigrants should be made, informs us that he has a little, and but a little money. We advise him, if he makes up his mind to emigrate, to keep that little money sacred, if it be possible, and to seek some certain pre-engagement for one or two years. He will then be able to lay out his little capital (which need not in the mean time lie entirely idle) to the best advantage. If the experience he has then gained is satisfactory, he will be able to carry out his plans securely: if he should be disappointed, he has still his nest-egg, which may avail him much in the "Old Country."

One word of general caution, not discouragement, and we have done. If emigration be determined on, choose the spot best fitted to your capabilities. Gather all the facts that can assist you in forming a clear outline of your course, and be not sparing in your inquiries. Proper applications to the authorised authorities of the various colonies will always be met, and no one need go out deficient in the information which is essential to his well-doing. It is in vain to imagine that a new emigrant has but to present himself in a colony, and that, if he comes to serve, a contest will arise as to who shall secure him; or, if he come to buy, which shall point out to him the most profitable bargain in the market. Let the emigrant gather information, ponder over it, and chalk out a decided plan *before* he puts his foot on shipboard; and then, and then only, has he a legitimate chance of success.

ORIGIN OF THE NAMES OF PLACES.

NAMES have all some meaning when first imposed; and when a place is named for the first time by any people, they apply to it some term, in early times generally descriptive of its natural peculiarities, or something else on account of which it is remarkable, from their own language. When we find, therefore, that the old names of natural objects and localities in a country belong, for the most part, to a particular language, we may conclude with certainty that a people speaking that language formerly occupied the country. Of this the names they have so impressed are as sure a proof as if they had left a distinct record of their existence in words engraven on the rocks. Such old names of places often long outlive, both the people that bestowed them and nearly all the material monuments of their occupancy. The language, as a vehicle of oral communication, may gradually be forgotten, and be heard no more where it was once in universal use; and the old topographical nomenclature may still remain unchanged. Were the Irish tongue, for instance, utterly to pass away and perish in Ireland, as the speech of any portion of the people, the names of rivers and mountains, and towns and villages, all over the country, would continue to attest that it had once been occupied by a race of Celtic descent. On the other hand, however, we are not entitled to conclude, from the absence of any traces of their language in the names of places, that a race, which there is reason for believing from other evidences to have anciently possessed the country, could not really have been in the occupation of it. A new people coming to a country, and subjugating or dispossessing the old inhabitants, sometimes change the names of places as well as of many other things. Thus, when the Saxons came over to this island, and wrested the principal part of it from its previous possessors, they seem, in the complete subversion of the former order of things which they set themselves to effect, to have everywhere substituted new names, in their own language, for those which the towns and villages throughout the country anciently bore. On this account the topographical nomenclature of England has ever since been, to a large extent, Saxon; but that circumstance is not to be taken as proving that the country was first peopled by the Saxons. — *Pictorial History of England.*



OUR LITERARY LETTER-BOX.

TO THE EDITOR.

"SIR,—I shall feel much obliged to you if you can give me information respecting suitable employment for females. I have five daughters, whose ages vary from fifteen to twenty-four, who, during the lifetime of their dear and affectionate father, were educated in a manner suitable to their expectations. But, though they all have intelligence and tastes which fit them for a superior sphere of life (pardon a mother's vanity), they have also a degree of practical common sense which disposes them to try any means of adding to our limited income which would not expose them to degrading or unworthy associations. I cannot bring myself to permit them to go out as governesses; but could they not employ themselves at home in light or agreeable occupations, or manufacture, involving the exercise of taste and ingenuity, by which the independence of the workwoman might be attained, without the loss of that self-respect essential to the lady? I am, sir, &c.,

"A WIDOW."

The subject of this letter is very interesting, but to answer it is difficult. Attention has been called to it, and suggestions have been made, such as that of ladies adopting the business of WOOD-ENGRAVING. But there are obstacles in the way. It would appear, at first sight, easy and natural for an educated woman, having the taste and nice facility of hand requisite in wood-engraving, to receive employment from a large establishment, the work being comfortably done at one's own fire-side. This, however, could only be practised to a limited extent. Ladies who had no husband or brother to be their medium of constant communication—receiving instructions, procuring or returning work, &c.—would find themselves exposed to a daily annoyance or vexation only to be understood when practically undergone; and, the truth must be spoken, though females may be considered as being generally more delicately endowed, and though some ladies have acquired just reputation as engravers, it is found that, on the whole, they have less of that appreciable tact necessary and essential, and, therefore, they are far less capable of competing with those who are already too numerous for the work to be done. This want of business tact arises, probably, more from the home-bred nature of female education, than from want of natural or available capacity.

Many instances occur in London of females resorting to employments usually reserved to men. Thus, in some watchmaker's shops, women may be seen occupied in the nice and delicate operations of the business. We are aware of an instance where the widow of a man, whose business was that of *leathering* the hammers of piano-fortes, was enabled to carry on the employment, and, in fact, to make herself better than during the lifetime of her husband, who was an intemperate fellow. But we shall be very much obliged to correspondents who will supply us with facts relative to employments for females, and thus enable us to enter upon the subject at large. We give the following as general heads on which we seek for information, but any particulars whatever relative to female employment will be welcome.

1. What is the nature of the employments for females in manufacturing towns—not including factory or mill-work—and what wages may they earn? Friends in Manchester, Glasgow, Paisley, &c., might give us practical and valuable information on this topic.

2. What wages are obtained by household servants in the provincial towns of England and Scotland?

3. Could females easily be enabled to acquire skill and facility in occupations usually left to men,—such as those we have mentioned—watchmakers, pianofortemakers, &c., and also as designers or pattern-makers for manufactures, household furniture, &c. &c.? Early and accurate information on these points is particularly requested.

4. What employments can females resort to in provincial towns where no manufactures are carried on?

As we have already mentioned, any other information—conveyed in a way calculated to inspire confidence—respecting employment for females, either in London or the country, will be received with pleasure.

AMICUS.—"Having read in a newspaper of the extraordinary removal of a bog, which happened at Kanturk in Ireland on Christmas last, I could not understand how a body so large could be raised (of itself) into the air, and travel a number of miles, carrying along with it timber to the amount of 5000. If you could satisfactorily state how it is accomplished, you will oblige."

"Amicus" is rather green. Does he really imagine that the bog got up into

the air and flew away with itself? Bogs frequently burst, especially after an excess of rainy weather. The waters underneath the boggy soil accumulate, and, having no vent, sometimes burst their embankment or inclosure, and the fluid and semi-fluid matter may be seen moving in one mass, and spreading over a large extent of adjoining country, covering arable land, and sweeping all before it.

S. N., NORTHAMPTON.—"Why can a person at the bottom of a well see the stars at mid-day?"—We answer this in the words of Sir John Herschel, and recommend our correspondent to study that truly eminent man's plain and practical Treatise on Astronomy. "When the sun is above the horizon, it illuminates the atmosphere and clouds; and these again disperse and scatter a portion of light in all directions, so as to send some of its rays to every exposed point, from every point of the sky. The generally diffused light, therefore, which we enjoy in the daytime, is a phenomenon originating in the same causes as the twilight. Were it not for the reflective and scattering power of the atmosphere, no objects would be visible to us out of direct sunshine; every shadow of a passing cloud would be pitchy darkness; the stars would be visible all day; and every apartment, into which the sun had not direct admission, would be involved in nocturnal obscurity. . . . The stars continue visible through telescopes during the day as well as the night; and in proportion to the power of the instrument, not only the largest and brightest of them, but even those of inferior lustre, such as scarcely strike the eye at night as at all conspicuous, are readily found and followed even at noon-day—unless in that part of the sky which is very near the sun—by those who possess the means of pointing a telescope accurately to the proper places. Indeed, from the bottom of deep narrow pits, such as a well or the shaft of a mine, such bright stars as pass the zenith may even be discerned by the naked eye; and we have ourselves heard it stated by a celebrated optician, that the earliest circumstance which drew his attention to astronomy, was the regular appearance at a certain hour, for several successive days, of a considerable star, through the shaft of a chimney."

G. C., SCARBOROUGH.—The solid framework of the body is made up of a number of separate pieces, the aggregate of which has been termed the skeleton. The bones are framed as a basis for the whole system, fitted to support, defend, and contain the more delicate and noble organs. They are the most permanent and unchangeable of all parts of the body. The bones also form points of attachment for the muscles, which are the active agents, or moving powers; whilst the bones are only passive. If we descend in the scale of animals, we find the skeleton becomes more simple, or rudimentary, until it is reduced to its fundamental part, the spine; and still lower down in the scale, we find multitudes of animals altogether destitute of a skeleton, either internal or external, so that the muscular structure alone remains as the means of locomotion. The form and size of bones present a considerable variation: they are usually divided into *long*, *short*, and *flat* bones. The *long* or *cylindrical* ones belong, in general, to the parts intended for locomotion, and they represent so many levers, to be moved by the muscles in various directions—as, for instance, in the legs, arms, fingers, and toes. The *short* bones are usually situated in parts where solidity and firmness are required, combined with freedom of motion, as in the *spine*. The *flat* or *broad* bones, for the most part, serve to form the walls of cavities, or to enclose spaces, as in the *skull*. The back-bone may be considered as the centre of the whole, both because it exists in all animals which possess an internal skeleton, and also because the different parts of the osseous system are, either immediately or mediately, connected with it. The number of pieces which compose the skeleton varies in the different ages of life; for some bones, which in the young subject are divided into several parts, become firmly united into one in old age; for, of all the systems of organs, the osseous is that which arrives latest at its full period of development,—the progress of ossification, or bone-making, not being fully completed, in the different parts of the skeleton, until about the sixteenth or eighteenth year, sometimes even later; thus allowing of the proper increase of the several parts of the body. The whole number of bones found in the ordinary skeleton are 197, as follows:—The spinal column (*back-bone*) consists of 26 separate bones, called *vertebrae* (from *vertebra*, to turn), because they turn one upon another. The skull and face are made up of 22; the ribs, 24, twelve on each side, with the sternum or breast-bone, 25. The two superior extremities—namely, the arms, hands, and bones of the shoulders, 64; the two inferior extremities—namely, the bones of the thigh, leg, and foot, 60. If a bone be steeped for some time in a dilute acid, the earthy salt, or inorganic part, is removed, leaving the cartilage, or organic part; and the bone becomes soft and flexible, but retains its form. The salts found in bones are phosphate and carbonate of lime, and phosphate of magnesia. The extremities of the bones forming joints, as in the knee and elbow, are covered with cartilage (or gristle), and are joined together by strong bands of the same substance.

We will give the spinal column as an example of this beautiful adaptation of parts. We have stated above, that it is composed of 26 separate bones, 24 of which are moveable, but the other two are not. Each of these 24 bones is moveable one upon another in any direction; but the motion allowed between each is necessarily small, which soon amounts to a considerable curve when a number are combined; and it is this combination of motions which prevents the spinal marrow from being pressed upon in any particular part, which would take place were there only one or two moveable points, from the sharp angles formed, and which would cause death, or at least palsy, of all the parts below the seat of pressure. The quantity of motion allowed is greater in some parts than in others; for instance, in the neck, which is frequently bent, and turned from side to side, the vertebrae are simple and not confined, easily moving one upon another; whereas, in the back, they are big and strong, and embarrassed by their connexions with the ribs; this is, therefore, the steadiest part of the spine, a very limited motion being allowed. Hardly can anything be more beautiful and surprising than this mechanism of the spine, where nature has established the most opposite and inconsistent functions in one set of bones;—for they are so free in motion as to turn continually, so strong as to support the whole weight of the body, and so flexible as to turn quickly in all directions, yet so steady within as to contain, and defend, the most material and the most delicate part of the whole nervous system.

A BUCKINGHAMSHIRE FARMER inquires about Cubic Nitre, or Nitrate of Soda, as a manure. This inquiry is not exactly in our "line;" but as we are glad to know that even *one* farmer reads the Journal, we will answer him so far as we can. From an advertisement issued by Mr. William Mitchell, dated from No. 12, Commercial Sale Rooms, Mincing-lane, we extract the following:—"Cubic Nitre, or Nitrate of Soda, has as yet been very partially used; last season, however, its properties began to be more fully known and better appreciated, and as the produce both from arable and pasture land, on which it had been used, far exceeded the most sanguine calculations, it will no doubt attract increasing attention. This article is imported from South America; it is more uniform in its strength than saltpetre, the alloy seldom exceeding more than from three to five per cent.; it is therefore sold without being subject to a refraction, and the precise weight is charged, not being liable to addition or subtraction." The price is, we believe, from 18s. 6d. to 19s. per cwt. Various other manures are advertised, as of superior efficacy:—"Owen's Animalised Carbon," "Clarke's Dessicated Compost," "Carbonised Humus," "Animalised Carbon," &c. A scientific farmer, Mr. Kimberley, Trotsworth, Egham, Surrey, advertises his "Trotsworth Liquid Manure," by which, he says, "an acre of land may be manured for one-fifth of the present expense, and equal to horse manure."

We have received a letter from a DRAPER'S ASSISTANT, complaining of the tone of our remarks on his profession, and impugning the correctness of our information, in the article "Chances of Living in London." This, we believe, is the first complaint we ever received as to the *spirit* in which we write, and we are gratified to know that the great majority of our readers think very differently from our correspondent. As to our information, we relied on a most intelligent draper's assistant, well acquainted with London; and we are still inclined to think that his information is most trustworthy.

All Letters intended to be answered in the LITERARY LETTER-BOX are to be addressed to "THE EDITOR of the LONDON SATURDAY JOURNAL," and delivered FREE, at 113, Fleet-street.

A PICTURE.

I saw two children intertwine
Their arms about each other,
Like the lithe tendrils of a vine
Around its nearest brother:
And ever and anon,
As gaily they ran on,
Each look'd into the other's face,
Anticipating an embrace.—*R. Monckton Milnes.*

THE FUTURE LIFE.

If we are never again to live—if those we here loved are for ever lost to us—if our faculties can receive no further expansion—if our mental powers are only trained and improved to be extinguished at their acme—then, indeed, are we reduced to the melancholy and gloomy dilemma of the Epicureans; and evil is confessed to checker, nay almost to cloud over, our whole lot, without the possibility of comprehending why, or of reconciling its existence with the supposition of a Providence at once powerful and good.—*Lord Brougham.*

GOOD IN EVERYTHING.

The man

Who, in *right spirit*, communes with the forms
Of nature—who with understanding heart
Doth know and love such objects as excite
No morbid passions, no disquietude,
No vengeance, and no hatred,—needs must feel
The joy of that pure principle of love
So deeply, that, unsatisfied with aught
Less pure and exquisite, he cannot choose
But seek for objects of a kindred lore
In fellow natures, and a kindred joy.
Accordingly he by degrees perceives
His feelings of aversion soften'd down;
A holy tenderness pervades his frame.
His sanity of reasoning not impaired—
Say rather, all his thoughts now flowing clear,
From a clear fountain flowing—he looks around,
And seeks for good; and finds the good he seeks,
Until abhorrence and contempt are things:
He only knows by name; and if he hear,
From other mouths, the language which they speak,
He is compassionate, and has no thought,
No feeling which can overcome his love.—*Wordsworth.*

PREACHING.

To preach to show the extent of our reading, or the subtleties of our wit—to parade it in the eyes of the vulgar, with the beggarly account of a little learning, tinsel'd over with a few words which glitter, but convey little light and less warmth—is a dishonest use of the poor single half-hour in a week which is put into our hands. "T is not preaching the Gospel, but ourselves.—*Sterne.*

THE VESUVIAN ALBUM.

Two inscriptions, which I copied from the album, one by an Englishman and the other by a Hibernian, may serve as specimens of the style of writing which so strongly excited the censure of the French tourists:—"John Hallett of the Port of Poole England, went to see M Vesuvius on the 20th of October, 1823, and I would Recommend anney person that go ther to take a bottle of wine with him, for it his a dry place and verrey bad roade."—"1823. I have witnessed the famous Mountain of Vesuvius in Italy, and likewise the Wicklow Mountains in Ireland, which I prefer. They talk of their lava in a palaver I little understand, and as for the crater, give me a drop of the swait cratur of Dublin in preference. JAMES G."—*Lady Blessington's letter in Italy.*

A PURITAN SABBATE.

Article 17. No one shall run on a Sabbath day, or walk in his garden, or elsewhere, except reverently to and from church. 18. No one shall travel, cook victuals, make beds, sweep houses, cut hair, or shave, on the Sabbath day. 19. No husband shall kiss his wife, and no mother kiss her child, on the Sabbath day.—*Blue Laws of Connecticut.*

THE DEPTH OF DISTRESS.

The following anecdote of the great Duke of Marlborough's pecuniary difficulties is given in Mrs. Thomson's *Life of his Duchess*. Writing on one occasion to a friend, he thus raises his lamentation:—

"I beg pardon for troubling you with this, but I am in a very odd distress—too much ready money. I have now one hundred thousand pounds dead, and shall have fifty more next week; if you can employ it in any way, it will be a very great favour to me.—Surely so strange a dilemma as that of having a hundred and fifty thousand pounds too much for one's peace of mind, and of being able to dispense with the interest of such a sum, is of rare occurrence."

CHILDHOOD.

The innocence of childhood is the tenderest, the sweetest, and not the least potent remonstrance against the vices and the errors of grown man, if he would but listen to the lesson, and take it to his heart. Seldom, too seldom, do we do so.—*G. P. R. James.*

ENGLISH LADIES.

The people of this kingdom are of genteel nature, and delicate constitution; most of the ladies, and females in general, are more delicate and refined than the blossom of roses. Their waist is more slender than a finger-ring—their form is beautiful, their voice gains the affections.—*Journal of the Persian Princess.*

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